


AUGUST

THE

1905

AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEWS



EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

The Japanese-Russian Peace
Negotiators

John Hay, Man and Statesman

Our Tariff Quarrel with Germany

Russia in Revolution

The Coming Eclipse of the Sun

The Japanese Merchant Marine

And Fifty Other Timely Topics

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THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

CONTENTS FOR AUGUST, 1905.

Count Sergius Witte	Frontispiece	Canada's Canal System	177
The Progress of the World—		By M. M. Wilner.	
Peace-making at Portsmouth.....	131	With maps and other illustrations.	
Count Witte the Central Figure.....	131	Electric Traction on German Rivers and Canals.....	183
A Business of Vast Moment.....	131	With illustrations.	
Will Japan Demand Too Much?.....	132	What the People Read in Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland.....	185
The Death of John Hay.....	132	With portraits and other illustrations.	
A Gentleman at the Helm of State.....	133	The Solar Observatory on Mount Wilson....	189
Mr. Root Again in the Cabinet.....	134	By Paul P. Foster.	
A Master of the Situation.....	134	With illustrations.	
No Politics in It.....	134	The Coming Eclipse of the Sun.....	194
The Paul Jones Ceremonies.....	134	By P. T. McGrath.	
Better Support for Our Foreign Service.....	136	With map.	
Dr. Hill at The Hague.....	136	Progress of the Russian Revolution.....	197
His <i>Magnum Opus</i>	136	By E. J. Dillon.	
The Executive Government in Summer Days.....	137	Hungary's Side in the Crisis with Austria....	203
A Word for Secretary Wilson.....	138	By Count Albert Apponyi.	
Mr. Hitchcock's Great Work.....	138	Our Tariff Differences with Germany.....	205
Senator Mitchell Found Guilty.....	138	By Wolf von Schierbrand.	
A Vast Governmental Department.....	139	The Japanese Merchant Fleet.....	208
Is Corruption Increasing?.....	139	By Winthrop L. Marvin.	
The Temptations of a Lavish Age.....	140	With illustration.	
The President's Sound Moral Leadership.....	140	The Peace Negotiators at Washington	211
The "Equitable" as a Moral.....	140	With portraits of Baron Komura, Baron Rosen, and Mr. Takahira.	
Business Conditions Favorable.....	141	Leading Articles of the Month—	
The Business Affairs of Uncle Sam.....	141	The Separation of Norway and Sweden.....	215
The Canal and Its Direction.....	141	Delcassé and German "Weltpolitik".....	216
A New Chief Engineer.....	141	The Disintegration of Morocco.....	217
Exit Wallace, Enter Stevens.....	142	Is Japan Really Preparing the "Yellow Peril?".....	218
Present Canal Problems.....	143	Japan's Trafalgar.....	221
Chinese Exclusion.....	143	One of the Secrets of Japanese Victories.....	221
Portland Argues for Chinese Labor.....	144	Russian Bureaucracy and the Labor Problem.....	223
Mr. Bristow on the Panama Railroad.....	145	The Jewish Question in Russia.....	223
Uncle Sam's Business Projects.....	145	Is There New Hope for Poland?.....	224
A Detail of Post-Office Work.....	145	Paid Readers in Cuban Cigar Factories.....	226
A Gift of \$10,000,000 for Colleges.....	146	The World's Most Difficult Mountain-Climbing.....	227
Social Wealth and Its Right Use.....	148	The New Railroad Bridge Over the Zambesi....	229
The British Parliament.....	148	Rider Haggard, "Land Commissioner".....	230
Army Scandals and Immigration.....	148	The Economic Regeneration of Ireland.....	231
Norway, Sweden, and the Kaiser.....	149	A Defense of "Standard Oil".....	232
Cabinet Changes in Spain and Holland.....	149	The Supervision of Life Insurance Companies..	234
The Passive Resistance of Hungary.....	150	The "School City" in Philadelphia.....	235
The End of the Concordat.....	151	An Italian Prince's Opinion of New York.....	236
The Pope's Temporal Power.....	151	Coney Island, the World's Greatest Playground	237
France, Germany, and Morocco.....	151	Edvard Grieg's First Success.....	239
The Mutinous Battleship <i>Potemkin</i>	152	The Theory of Descent.....	239
Collapse of Russia's Navy.....	153	The Russian Defeat and the Moslem World....	240
Progress of the Russian Revolution.....	154	Some Peculiarities of Chinese Journalism.....	242
The Czar and His People.....	154	The Progress of German China.....	243
The Bureaucracy Intervenes.....	154	Dane <i>versus</i> German in Schleswig.....	244
The Coming Assembly of the People.....	155	Some Frank German Views of England.....	245
The Japanese Invade Siberia.....	155	English Women Writers on the Woman's Movement	247
Minister Witte on Russia and Peace.....	156	Harvard's Germanic Museum.....	248
The New Australian Ministry.....	157	With portraits and other illustrations.	
Renascence of Arab Civilization.....	157	Briefer Notes on Topics in the Periodicals... 249	
With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations.		The New Books.....	253
Record of Current Events	158	With portraits of authors.	
With portraits and other illustrations.			
Some Cartoons of the Month.....	162		
John Hay: An American Gentleman.....	166		
By Walter Wellman.			
With portrait.			
Mr. Hay's Work in Diplomacy	171		
By John Bassett Moore.			

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COUNT SERGIUS WITTE, RUSSIA'S MAN OF THE HOUR.

(President of the Imperial Committee of Ministers and Russia's leading peace negotiator at Washington. For an outline of Count Witte's career and portraits and sketches of the other peace negotiators, see the article "The Peace Negotiators at Washington," on page 211 of this issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

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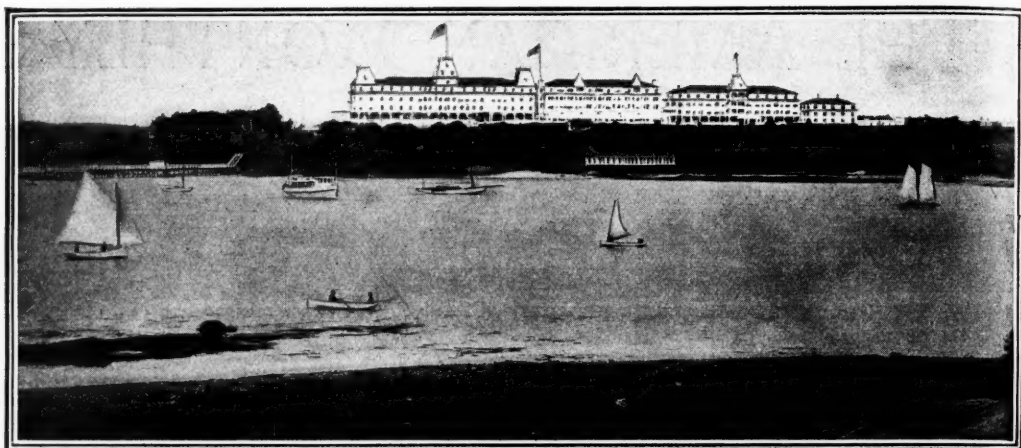
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Peace-making at Portsmouth.
With the coming of August days, the world's diplomatic center shifts itself to the quiet harbor of Portsmouth, on the coast of New Hampshire. For it has been decided that the commissioners who are to try to make a treaty of peace between Russia and Japan under the hospitality of the United States Government will not attempt to do their work in the summer heat of Washington, but will avail themselves of the comfort and comparative seclusion afforded by the United States naval station at Portsmouth, which occupies an island in the harbor, and which boasts a substantial new building that has been made ready for the distinguished plenipotentiaries. The victorious Japanese will be represented by their minister of foreign affairs, Baron Komura, who arrived at Seattle on July 20, and the Japanese minister at Washington, Mr. Takahira. The Russian Government will be represented by the new Russian ambassador at Washington, Baron Rosen, and,—what is most notable of all,—by Russia's ablest and foremost public man, Count Sergius Witte.

Count Witte the Central Figure.
It is surmised that the chief importance of the final decision in Russia to send M. Witte lies in the fact that, in the first place, he is known to have been opposed to the war and as being in favor of peace, while, in the second place, it is asserted that he would not accept this responsibility until a much more complete power to agree upon terms had been granted than the Czar's government had intended at first to confer upon the commissioners. Thus, there were not a few men of experience and discernment in Europe who were of the opinion that the attempt of the commissioners to agree upon terms would not result in the making of peace, but that the war would go on indefinitely. M. Witte's appointment is therefore to be regarded as of favorable omen. It is useless to guess how long the commissioners may

protract their negotiations. Although clothed with great powers, they will undoubtedly have to refer points almost constantly, by cipher cable messages, to their governments at home.

A Business of Vast Moment.
The things they are called upon to decide must affect in a far-reaching way, not only the two nations now at war, but most of the other important powers, European, Asiatic, and American. Thus, Portsmouth will be a Mecca of diplomats and journalists, although the sessions of the commissioners will be anything but public and open. It took many weeks for our commissioners and those of Spain, in session at Paris in 1898-99, to agree upon the terms under which Spain withdrew from Cuba and ceded to us Porto Rico and the Philippines. Ours was a comparatively small war, and its only specific object was to settle the future status of Cuba. The present war between Japan and Russia is of vastly greater consequence, and the responsibilities of the men who are to try to fix the terms of a permanent peace will be correspondingly heavy. Whatever form of agreement may be made, it is not likely that there will be any interference on the part of other nations. Russia made a settlement with Turkey after the war of 1877-78. England and Germany, however, interfered, and the Berlin Congress greatly modified the terms that Turkey had been compelled to accept from the victor. When Japan defeated China, in 1895, the terms of peace as arranged between the contending powers were upset by the interference of Russia, Germany, and France. In both instances, the terms arranged between the combatants themselves were better for the true welfare of those concerned, and far better for the permanent peace of the world, than were the modified terms brought about by outside meddling. In the present instance, there will be no attack upon the general principle that China must be saved from dismemberment; and,—



THE HARBOR OF PORTSMOUTH, N. H.—THE HOTEL WENTWORTH IN THE BACKGROUND.

with that principle respected,—there will be no disposition in any quarter to dispute the conclusions that the commissioners may reach.

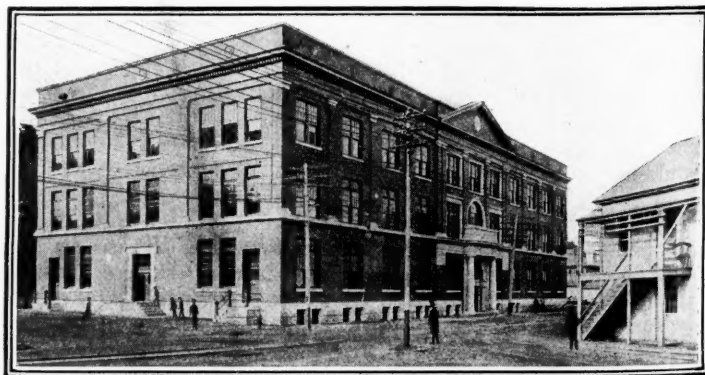
*Will Japan
Demand
Too Much?*

Although the Japanese have been sweepingly victorious, they recognize the fact that the latent power of the Russian Empire is a stupendous thing, and that any attempt at overreaching, and any demands that would be generally regarded by neutral nations as grossly immoderate, would only harm Japan in the long run. It is true that Baron Hayashi, at London, is quoted as saying that it is a mistake to suppose that the Japanese are angels and that they mean to demand less than the full measure of a victor's spoil. But, since the Japanese have done everything so brilliantly since the outbreak of this war, it may be expected that their diplomacy in this crowning task of making peace will show the same qualities of clear vision. There will be readiness at all points, and there will be sense and discernment. The skill and precision that the leaders of this marvelous nation have shown in handling their armies and fleets, in managing their war finances, and in maintaining an unexampled spirit of harmony and coöperation throughout the entire nation, will be shown at Portsmouth. Russia's position is a very difficult one, because her defeat

at the hands of Japan was almost as complete a surprise to most of the people of Russia, including the official classes, as the pluck and prowess and long endurance of the Boers was a surprise to the officials and most of the people of England. It is not easy for any nation to accept defeat in war, and the circumstances are peculiarly trying for the very nation that has for so many years been looked upon as more powerful than any other, from the military standpoint. Japan must and will consider these things.

*The Death
of
John Hay.*

The coming of this conference to the United States, as well as its existence through the good offices of our own government, is a mark of the greatly increased regard in which this country's position is held by foreign nations. Another mark of



THE GENERAL EQUIPMENT BUILDING, NAVY YARD, PORTSMOUTH, N. H.

(To be used as a conference hall by the Russian and Japanese peace commissioners.)

ON TO WASHINGTON.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

that regard has been seen in the tributes paid to the late Secretary of State John Hay, who was regarded as typifying in his own personality and methods the present spirit of the United States in relation to other countries. For many years Mr. Hay had not known firm health, and his public services during the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations were rendered only with pain and difficulty, through rigid care to avoid everything that would produce a break-down. In spite of such constant care, however, Mr. Hay's health had been declining for many months, and he had in April gone to Europe in a condition that showed at least very serious need of rest and medical treatment. He returned in June, and after a brief visit to Washington, retired to his country home on Lake Sunapee, in New Hampshire. It was generally supposed that he was on the high road to recovery; but there was a sudden collapse early in the morning of July 1, and the sad news of his death was announced in the papers of the same day. If he had lived, he would probably have lingered on in the condition of an invalid. As it was, he passed away at the moment of his greatest fame, when all the world took note and felt his loss.

*A Gentleman
at the Helm
of State.*

The tributes of respect and esteem that were paid to his memory were without a single discordant note; and, indeed, they were undoubtedly more widespread and sincere than would have been paid to any other man at present occupying high position in the diplomacy or foreign offices of any nation whatsoever. We publish elsewhere in this number, from the pen of Mr. Walter Wellman, a personal sketch of Mr. Hay which explains very well why he was thus highly regarded at home and abroad. He was a gentleman, not only in all the private relations of life, but also in his conduct of public and international affairs. He carried fine manners as well as high principles into the duties of his great office. He brought to his work not so much a profound or scholarly mind as one highly trained and widely informed, and, above all, a mind of rare cultivation and refinement. With his coming to the State Department there disappeared completely and forever the last vestiges of the old tradition of American "shirt sleeves" diplomacy. With our enlarged and more complicated international position, the business of our Secretary of State has become a far more delicate thing than it was in times

gone by, and the changed conditions will require altered methods. The character and range of this expanded international business of ours is well shown in the article that Mr. John Bassett Moore writes for this number of the REVIEW upon Mr. Hay's career from the standpoint of international law and diplomacy. It would be, in our opinion, a great mistake to assume that Secretary Hay was doing his work in a manner that separated him from the temper and spirit of the administration in which he belonged. Unquestionably, President McKinley was head of the executive government during his incumbency; and in like manner it is true that President Roosevelt has been in all respects at the head of his own administration and the chief master of all its policies, foreign as well as domestic.

*Mr. Root
Again in the
Cabinet.*

If Mr. Hay was the man for the period in which he served the Government as Secretary of State, it is certainly not less true that Mr. Elihu Root proved himself the man for the still more pressing and serious emergencies that confronted the War Department during the five years that he spent as War Secretary. It was not merely that he brought about the reorganization of the army itself, but it fell to his lot to lead in the reconstruction of Cuba and the creation of its new republic, as well as in the organization of government and administration in the Philippines, and the adjustment of relations between the United States and Hawaii in the one ocean and Porto Rico in the other. When Mr. Root withdrew from President Roosevelt's cabinet, in February, 1904, it was because he had accomplished all of the larger tasks which he had undertaken; and after this great work, intense as well as protracted, he felt himself entitled to the repose as well as to the emoluments of private life. He came back at once to the leadership of the New York bar, and to a practice great in the range of its bearing upon the business affairs of the country, and, of course, correspondingly lucrative. But when, on Mr. Hay's death, the President asked Mr. Root to return to the cabinet as Secretary of State, there was prompt acceptance of the new public task.

*A Master
of the
Situation.*

The very nature of the problems with which Mr. Root had to deal as Secretary of War brought him in constant relation with foreign affairs, while his eminence as a lawyer and his wisdom as an adviser had made him all along so close in the confidence of the President in all policy-making situations that he takes up the work of Secretary of State with entire familiarity, and with easy mastery.

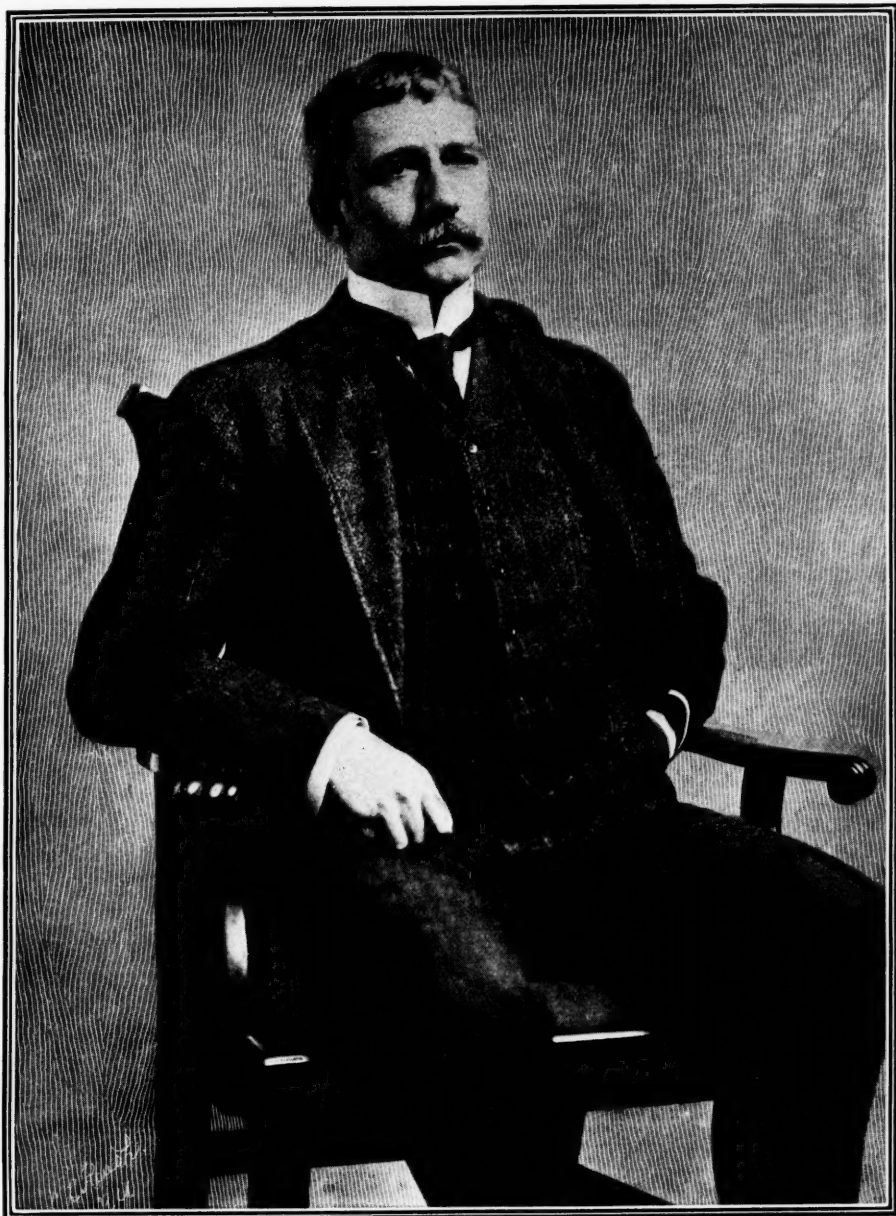
Mr. Hay's great qualities as Secretary of State were in the main developed after several years of experience in a position which he held longer than any of his predecessors during the nearly one hundred and twenty years of the existence of this government. It is no disparagement, therefore, to Mr. Hay to remark that Mr. Root brings to the post of Secretary of State more complete qualifications than those possessed by any other man at the moment of first taking up the duties of that particular portfolio. Mr. Hay had rounded out his great career, and his work was done. He was only sixty-seven, but for a good while he had felt himself the victim of declining years. Mr. Root at sixty is as young-looking a man as the entirely new picture of him published herewith would indicate. His mind is as fresh and elastic as that of a man half his age, while it has the added advantage that comes from experience and maturity.

*No
Politics
in It.*

It is wholly a mistake to assume that Mr. Root's appointment has had any intentional political bearing, or that it necessarily puts him in the line of nomination for the Presidency in 1908. Presidential nominations somehow take care of themselves, and do not come from any man's giving them thought. Meanwhile, with Mr. Root at the head of the State Department, Mr. Roosevelt has at hand the man who has all along, out of office as well as in it, been his closest adviser in public matters for a good many years past, and the people of the United States have secured the services in public affairs of great moment of a man whose patriotism and devotion to the public good are as great as are his talents and his discretion. Mr. Root will naturally take an especial interest in the high diplomatic business going forward at Portsmouth, in view of his past management of the American part of the Chinese expedition at the time of the Boxer troubles, his part in the history of Philippine affairs, and his interest in still other phases of the far-Eastern situation and Pacific Ocean affairs.

*The
Paul Jones
Ceremonies.*

It is reported that there will in the near future be some reorganization of the State Department, and that Mr. Loomis, First Assistant Secretary, will be promoted to some diplomatic position, in accordance with plans made before the recent investigation of charges relating to Mr. Loomis as minister to Venezuela. It is rumored, though not absolutely confirmed, that Mr. Lloyd Griscom, United States minister to Japan, will succeed Mr. Loomis at Washington. Meanwhile, Mr. Loomis, who had gone abroad for a vaca-



HON. ELIHU ROOT, SECRETARY OF STATE.

tion trip, had taken part in the formal ceremonies at Paris with which the body of our great naval hero, Paul Jones, of Revolutionary fame, had been placed by the French Government in the custody of Admiral Sigsbee. This officer had gone with a squadron of war vessels and much pomp to bear to the United States the leaden casket in which the embalmed body had been placed so long ago, as if for transmission

to this country at that very time. Our retiring ambassador, Gen. Horace Porter, and Assistant Secretary Loomis had been appointed special envoys for this ceremonial occasion in France. While abroad, Mr. Loomis is to prepare a report upon the business organization of our diplomatic service. General Porter comes home with great prestige, and he well deserves praise for the successful search to find the burial-place of Jones.

*Better Support
for Our For-
eign Service.*

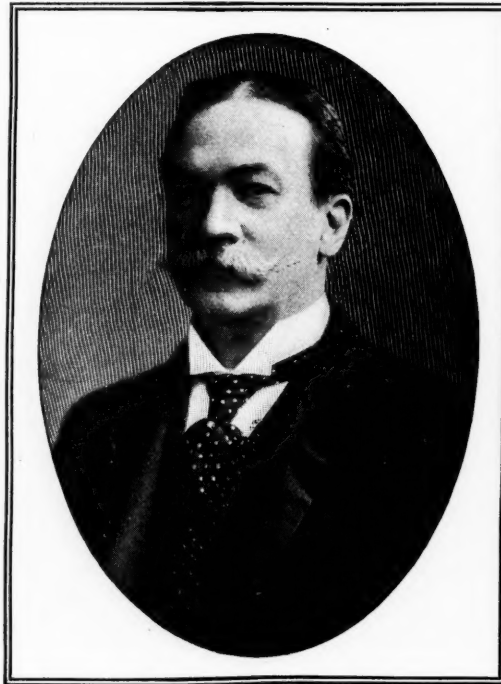
Since American diplomacy has become so much respected, and its personnel is so favorably received in most foreign lands, it is quite time that the service should receive better treatment at the hands of Congress than has been accorded it hitherto. It is not in keeping with the dignity of our government that diplomatic salaries should be so small that the important ambassadorships are tending, as a matter of custom, to be given only to men of large private wealth. It happens that Mr. Whitelaw Reid had the experience and the qualities which would have brought him success as ambassador at London, even without private means at his disposal. But, as a matter of fact, Mr. Reid pays more for his house-rent alone than the entire salary of his office. The situation would be greatly improved if our government should acquire or build suitable houses for the offices and residences of American ambassadors and ministers in the principal capitals of the world. With such provision made, and some rearrangement of salaries, Uncle Sam would not have to ask his representatives abroad to pay a large part of their bills from their own pocketbooks. Apropos of Mr. Reid's going to England, it is worth while to call attention to the remarkable character of the reception he has received there on all hands,—the friendliness shown being in part personal, but chiefly an indication of good-will toward the country Mr. Reid represents. In like manner, the opportunity afforded by the ceremonies in France to which we have alluded brought forth most agreeable tokens of friendliness toward this country and its representatives on the part of the great French republic. In Russia, where there has been a good deal of feeling against the United States on account of the prevalence here of sympathy with Japan in the war, and also, per-

haps, on account of the attitude of this country toward Russia's Jewish policy, there have been many marks of courtesy shown to our present ambassador, Mr. Meyer; and this gentleman has rendered unquestioned service in helping to bring about the negotiations for peace.

*Dr. Hill
at The
Hague.*

While speaking of our diplomatic service, it is worth while to note again the fitness of the appointment of Dr. David J. Hill to the post of minister at

The Hague, from which Mr. Stanford Newel retires after a service of many years. Dr. Hill, who has for the past two years been our minister to Switzerland, had for five years previous been First Assistant Secretary of State. Earlier than that he had by much study made himself an authority in international law and diplomatic history, and had given especial attention to the subject of international arbitration. It so happened that at the time of the preparations for the peace conference at The Hague, Secretary Hay was much occupied with other affairs; and Dr. Hill, as First Assistant Secretary, had full charge of the business of arranging for American participation in that conference. When all the



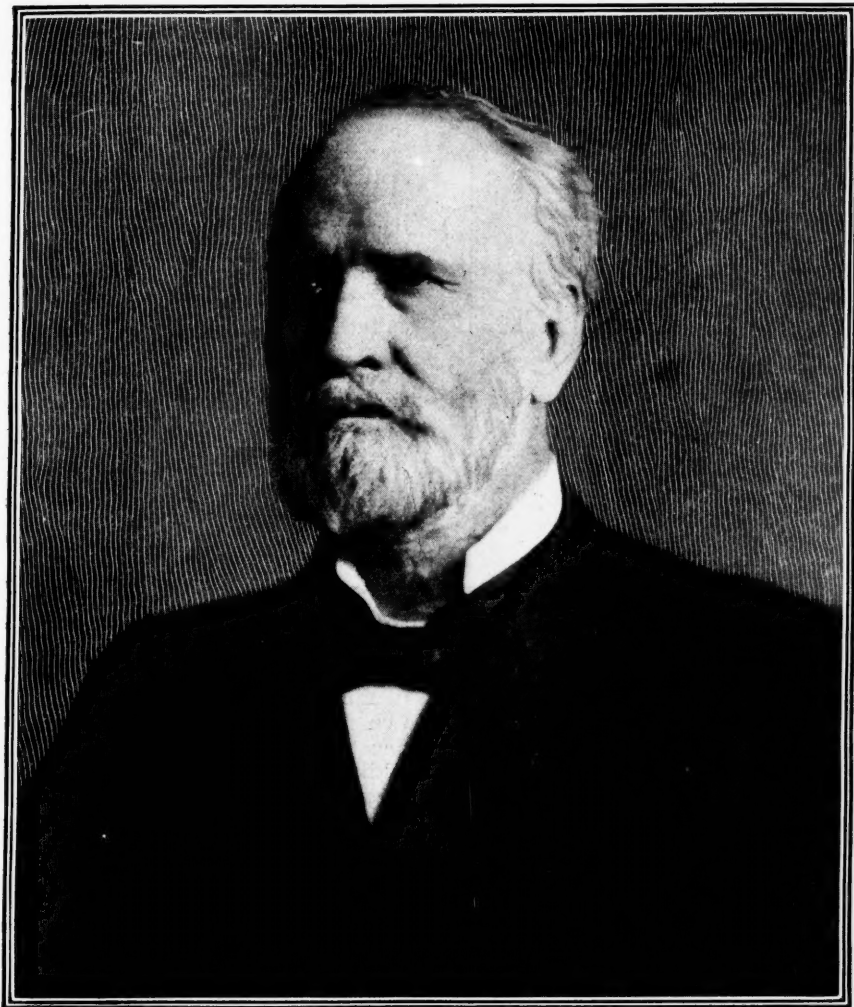
HON. DAVID JAYNE HILL.

(The American minister to The Netherlands.)

facts are known, it will appear that to Dr. Hill as much as to any other man is due the credit for the manner in which the American delegates were inspired to turn a futile disarmament conference into a successful arbitration congress. There is, therefore, a peculiar fitness in Dr. Hill's going to The Hague, where he will become the natural leader in the management of the permanent tribunal of arbitration.

*His
Magnum
Opus.*

It was a part of Dr. Hill's plan, in taking the quiet but dignified post of minister to Switzerland, to devote himself to the carrying on of his studies in



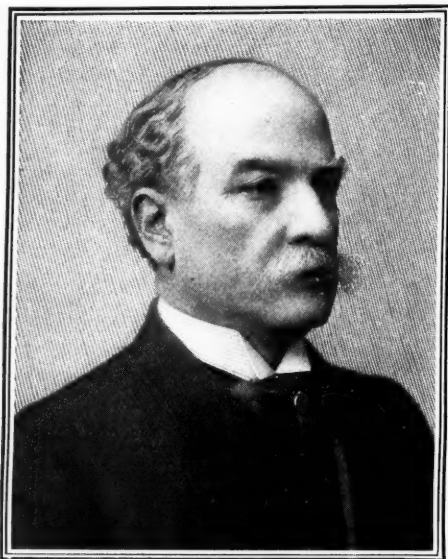
HON. JAMES H. WILSON, SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE.

diplomatic history and to the writing of an elaborate treatise in that field. The first volume of Dr. Hill's great work,—five volumes more are to follow,—is entitled "The Struggle for Universal Empire," and it deals with the early and medieval period down to the beginning of the emergence of nationalities, in the fourteenth century. The second volume, which is to follow at once, will be upon the establishment of European territorial sovereignty; and these two volumes together will be regarded by their author as indicating the foundations of diplomatic history. Four more volumes will bring the narration down to the present time; and while each volume is to be complete in itself, the six will form a continuous work under the general title "A History of Diplo-

macy in the International Development of Europe." The Hague will afford favorable conditions for the prosecution of Dr. Hill's great work, and it is highly creditable that this American scholar and diplomat should so devote his spare time. Undertakings like this of Dr. Hill are in line with the great traditions of the Motleys, the Prescotts, the Bancrofts, and many others.

The peace negotiations kept President Roosevelt at Washington later than he usually stays there during the summer time, and he returned to his Oyster Bay home on July 29. He went to Cleveland, Ohio, on June 5, with the members of the cabinet, to attend the funeral of Secretary Hay.

The Executive Government in Summer Days.



HON. ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK.
(Secretary of the Interior.)

In spite of unceasing public labors, he appears to be in a state of robust health and vigor hardly equaled by any other citizen of the country. Administrative affairs have gone forward smoothly in spite of some changes in the personnel of the cabinet. Secretary Taft, who had started for San Francisco on his way to the Philippines when Secretary Hay died, was advised by the President to continue his journey without interruption. He was accompanied by a considerable party, including a number of members of Congress. Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, of whose appointment as Secretary of the Navy we spoke last month, has already been giving much evidence of great ability and high ideals in administrative work. Mr. Cortelyou has now fairly taken hold of the business of the Post-Office Department, and his quiet but thorough methods will doubtless in due time show many good results. The Agricultural Department has been subjected to some criticism because of the discovery that an official in the statistical and crop-reporting bureau had been furnishing advance information regarding the state of the cotton crop to certain speculators on the New York Cotton Exchange.

A Word for Secretary Wilson. Some of the newspaper comments would seem to convey the impression that the whole business of the Agricultural Department is to collect cotton statistics; and that the discovery that an under-

official has made private use of such information must bring utter and final condemnation upon the whole career of Secretary Wilson as head of that department. Nothing, of course, could be more absurd. While the development of the statistical bureau and its special application to cotton-crop reporting are interesting phases of the work of the department, they are far from being its principal object. Through its experiment stations, and in many other ways, the department is engaged in the development of agriculture, stock-raising, and kindred industries. Secretary Wilson has achieved a magnificent success during his long incumbency. The statistical bureau might well enough be turned over to the permanent census organization,—so far is it from bearing a vital relation to the chief work that is being carried on under Mr. Wilson's direction for the progress of rural industries.

Mr. Hitchcock's Great Work. The Department of the Interior, under Secretary Hitchcock, has gone steadily forward in improving the

administration of such bureaus as that concerned with the Indians, for example; and it has justified itself in its endeavors to improve the methods of administering the land laws. In this connection may be noted the results of the trial of Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, who was charged with the improper promotion of the interests of certain violators of the land laws in obtaining possession of valuable parts of the public domain. Senator Mitchell's trial in the United States District Court at Portland, Ore., which lasted two weeks, resulted in a verdict of guilty on July 3. The Government has been endeavoring to break up a conspiracy organized by a powerful and wealthy Western syndicate which had been obtaining through fraudulent processes, at a merely nominal price, immense areas of public land, often forty times as valuable as the sums paid by them.

Senator Mitchell Found Guilty. The technical charge upon which Senator Mitchell was found guilty was that of accepting fees for using

his influence as a United States Senator with the executive departments at Washington. There is a special law against such conduct, and it is in no sense true when Senator Mitchell obtained favors from Land Commissioner Hermann for his clients that he was acting as a lawyer in the practice of his profession. The venerable Mitchell had been elected five times to the United States Senate, and knew well the responsibilities of his great office. His humiliation is not his alone, but that of his State in its exposition year, and that of the country

which he has for more than a quarter of a century helped to govern. His fault is a fault of the times in which we live. It is a fault for which we must as a nation put on sackcloth and ashes, with searching of hearts and an earnest determination to rid ourselves of this wretched greed for gain at the sacrifice of honor and of scrupulous integrity.

*A Vast
Governmental
Department.*

The Hon. Ethan Allen Hitchcock, as Secretary of the Interior, has not posed at all before the public, but he has administered the duties of his portfolio with a stern and unbending sense of rectitude. Our public life is decidedly the better for his having come into Mr. McKinley's cabinet and stayed faithfully at his post on into the second Roosevelt administration. The great bureaus which are grouped together under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior,—together with the other services that pertain to the portfolio,—make up an array of public interests so vast that in the aggregate they are far greater than the administrative work that belongs to all the departments of some of the smaller countries. A highly instructive volume, and one that many thousands of people ought to read, is the annual report of the Secretary of the Interior. It covers descriptively and in a terse and accurate way a number of matters of public concern. The part of it devoted to the general land office shows the wide range of the administrative work that has to be carried on, and also sets forth the efforts made to protect the public domain, in the process of disposing of it under the land laws, from the rascals who have in so many ingenious ways tried to obtain its best parcels by fraudulent and criminal methods. Its information about forest reserves alone would make the volume welcome to many people. After the affairs of the land office comes the presentation of Indian affairs. Next comes the report upon the work of the pension office, so immense in

the volume of money that it involves, and so far-reaching in its relation to millions of people. The patent office, which enters so importantly into the commercial and economic life of the American public, belongs to Mr. Hitchcock's department, as also does the geological survey, with its current investigations in Alaska, its reports on the mineral resources of this country, its marvelous scientific work of various sorts, its relation to the new irrigation and reclamation service in the arid regions, and its many other activities. The work carried on under the Hon. William T. Harris as commissioner of education belongs also to the Department of the Interior, as formerly did the Census Bureau, which is now a part of the Department of Commerce. A large amount of administrative work relating to the Territories of Alaska, Arizona, Hawaii, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Porto Rico also comes under the direction of Secretary Hitchcock. So, also, belongs to his portfolio the administration of the national parks and reservations, including the great Yellowstone Park, the Yosemite, and at least half-a-dozen others. Besides all these large bureaus and services, there are many other matters belonging to the Department of the Interior, including educational institutions and the custody and care of public buildings and grounds in Washington.

*Is
Corruption
Increasing?*

We mention all these things to remind our readers of the vast concerns that have to be safeguarded in a department of which people in the Eastern part of the country hear very little, as a rule, and know still less. In some of these great bureaus, notably the public-land service, the Indian service, and the pension service, there have in times past been practised upon the government and people of the United States great and widespread frauds and wrongs. It is an entire mistake to believe that recent and current abuses in these services are greater than in former times. They are, on



At his desk.

For a square deal
always.

Receiving an Indian
delegation.

Scrutinizing
his correspondence.

A great pedestrian.

SECRETARY HITCHCOCK IN SOME CHARACTERISTIC POSES.—From the *Post* (Washington).

the contrary, far less than they were some years ago. Such services ramify so greatly, and cover so vast an extent of territory, employing so many local officers and agents, that the highest principles and ablest talents at the center of things cannot always avail to prevent wrongdoing at the outlying points. But our public administration is growing more business-like and efficient than ever before; and, while constant vigilance is needed, there is no ground for cynicism or for deep discouragement.

The Temptations of a Lavish Age.

We live in an age of luxury, when public officials see their own friends and boyhood companions—who have "struck it rich" in trust-promotion or other private enterprises—living in fine houses and entertaining lavishly, touring in automobiles, and cruising in private yachts. Ours is a democratic country, with a high average of intelligence and nothing whatsoever in social talent and aptitude to separate those who are lavish in expenditure from their friends of small income. Official salaries are small when measured by the social prominence and the spending needs of men in public life and official place. At the present time, in the United States, it is hard for many of these officials, whose families have social ambition, to live the lives of the official class in Germany, where there is so much prestige in the mere holding of public office,—such positions being for life,—that most of the officials are perfectly content to live modestly and simply, to work with zeal, to lead an intellectual life, to enjoy the society of people situated like themselves, and to await with certainty the old-age pensions that always come with retirement from public positions held faithfully and honestly. We cannot make our social, official, and economic life over upon the German model, or upon any other pattern; and we must work out our own salvation, both in public administration and in the business and social affairs of private life, under the conditions that we find prevailing here in the United States.

The President's Sound Moral Leadership.

It is good for us, therefore, on every account, that we should just now have at the head of our government so sturdy and incessant a preacher of the gospel of sound living for these times as President Roosevelt shows himself to be. His example to the young men of this country is of priceless worth. He is often called a man of luck and a man of destiny; but everything in the world that has ever come to him he has squarely earned by the hard work and the right living which have made him fit for occasions when

they have presented themselves. He was fortunate, perhaps, in having a modest fortune left to him by his father; but he would have made his way just the same without that early advantage. The possession of a reasonable amount of this world's goods is desirable, and that fact is recognized by most people of healthy mind and sound observation. But our American life is developing in such a way that here, henceforth, as in Europe, most things really worth having are becoming as accessible to people of moderate means as to the very rich. Let us hope that we are not mistaken in the signs that point toward a widespread revival of interest in the old-fashioned principles of honesty, whether in public or in private life. The country begins to show an increased degree of honor and deference to the public man who has served a long time, and has lived on his salary and not grown rich. In like manner, in the business world the man who has not made haste to be rich by questionable methods, but who has carried fine principles into his business affairs, reaps a sure and certain reward in the esteem of his fellow-men. And since, after all, the principles of honor and integrity lie at the foundation of our business life, there is no truth whatsoever in the notion that modern business cannot be carried on except by practising and conniving at dishonest methods.

The "Equitable" as a Moral.

The further revelations in the affairs of the Equitable Insurance Company have been used to advantage by the newspapers and all other agencies of public opinion in this country as a warning and a moral to enforce the principles of business integrity and honor. Apropos of this insurance situation, we promised our readers last month that in the near future we would undertake to publish a fair and just statement of the facts thus far brought to light in the Equitable investigation and the bearing of these facts upon the insurance business in general. This article will appear in the September number of the REVIEW. Meanwhile, it is merely to be said that Mr. Cleveland and his associate trustees, who are voting the Equitable stock in the interest of the policy-holders, have been filling vacancies on the Equitable board with men of good repute not engaged in the carrying on of Wall Street enterprises. The question of bringing criminal actions against men guilty of profiting at the expense of the policy-holders of the Equitable was under careful consideration last month by District Attorney Jerome. It was evident that the whole truth must come out, and also that the Equitable in the end would be run for its policy-holders.

*Business
Conditions
Favorable.*

The Equitable disclosures are so related to other financial affairs that for a time they seemed considerably to disturb business at the financial center; but all this had been seemingly discounted last month, and the money markets and the economic life of the country were in a normal state. The reports of railway earnings were very favorable as compared with those of a year ago, every part of the country showing an increase of gross earnings, to an average extent of 6 per cent. Following the favorable railroad situation and the prosperous state of the iron and steel industries came the Government's general crop report, of the date of July 1, which was quite as satisfactory as there had been reason to expect, and which had its reassuring effect upon all lines of business. This year's wheat crop will have turned out probably more than one hundred million bushels in excess of that of last year. A great corn crop is anticipated. The crop of oats, when the record is finally made up, is likely to be the largest but one in the country's history; the barley crop will probably have broken the record, and the potato crop will also be the largest, excepting one, that the country has ever produced. The prices of staple products have been firm, and thus the farming community may well look forward to a favorable outcome of their efforts for the year 1905.

*The Business
Affairs
of Uncle Sam.*

Uncle Sam himself seems not to have had so lucky a year, if one merely considers the Treasury reports, inasmuch as the government expenses for the year ending June 30 exceeded its revenues by more than \$24,000,000. But these are mere matters of adjustment of taxation to the probable public needs, and the government reserves are always ample for such emergencies as a deficit like the present one. No government in the world can as easily as ours command all the money it requires for its legitimate objects. The Panama Canal will need a large outlay, but this should be looked upon as an investment rather than as an expense, and should be provided for by the issue of bonds, with the expectation that in the long run the income from the canal will pay the interest and provide a sinking fund for the paying off of the principal.

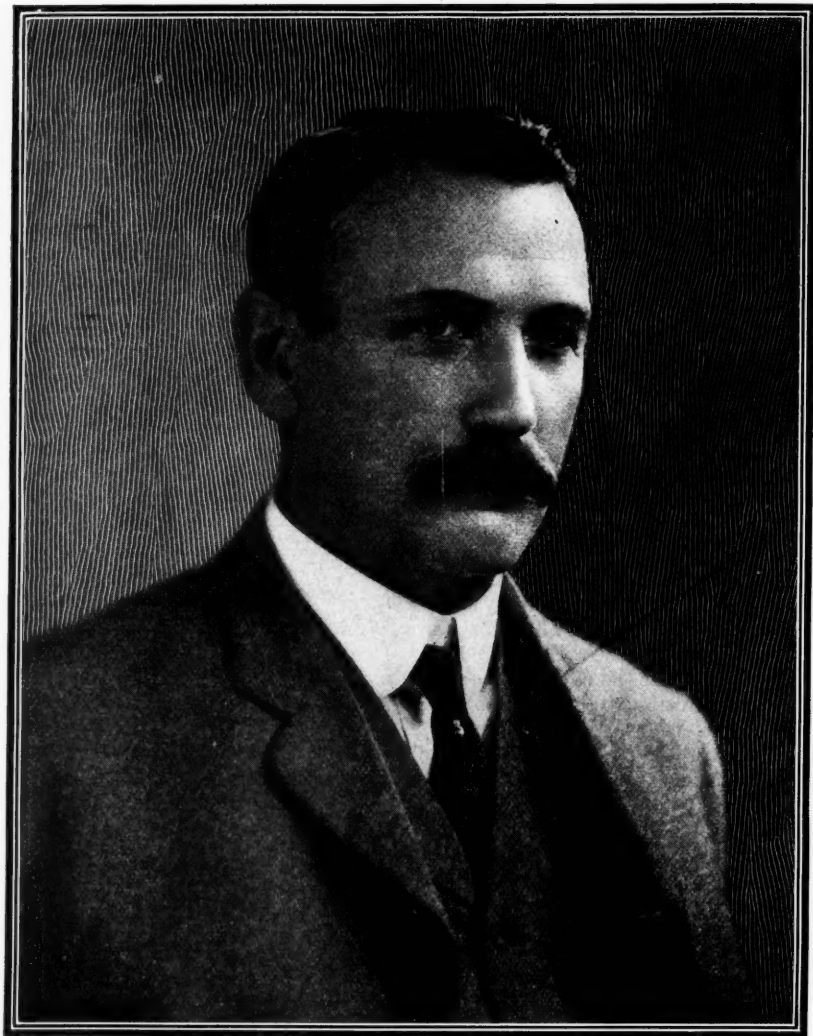
*The Canal
and Its
Direction.*

It is reported that with the War Department already so much occupied with Philippine affairs, as well as military matters, the oversight of the Panama Canal may be transferred, as a matter of convenience, to the State Department. If that arrangement should go into effect it would bring

about a somewhat curious result. It is well known that President Roosevelt, in reorganizing the Panama Commission, tried to secure the services of Mr. Elihu Root as chairman, and offered him a salary of \$100,000. Mr. Root declined to enter the service of the Government in that particular capacity. Now, however, he takes office as Secretary of State at a salary of \$8,000; and if the oversight of the Panama Canal be transferred to his department his relations to the canal work will become direct and important, so that all canal affairs will be reported to the President through the very man the President most desired for the direction of the undertaking. It will, of course, make no difference to Mr. Shonts as chairman, or to the other members of the commission, whether the affairs of the Isthmus are attached to the Department of War or to the Department of State.

*A New
Chief
Engineer.*

The most important of recent incidents connected with the canal has been the retirement of Mr. John F. Wallace. This occurred on June 28. Mr. Wallace had only recently returned to the Isthmus after having been in this country in consultation with the Government regarding the reorganization of the commission and the business of the canal. His wishes had been deferred to, and the official importance of his position had been enhanced under the new arrangement. There came to him, however, just at this time, a strong temptation in the form of an offer at a large salary to enter the Westinghouse employ in the promotion of street-railroad schemes. His resignation came at a time regarded by the Government as peculiarly inopportune. His desire to withdraw in the near future was met by a peremptory instruction to resign immediately, and there was visited upon him a scathing rebuke from Secretary Taft, couched in language of honest indignation, but too much in the tone of scolding to be wholly dignified. It is the tradition of public service in the United States that men retire at just about the moment when they feel like doing so. There are so many people who want office and who are everlastingly seeking it that not very many incumbents regard themselves as indispensable, or think of the retention of office as a matter of conscience and duty. Mr. Wallace went into the Panama Canal service chiefly, doubtless, for the great fame that would come to him from being the chief constructor of the world's greatest engineering project. Naturally, all of us who make newspapers and periodicals united in one grand chorus to give him publicity and fame, and forthwith there came a demand for



CHIEF ENGINEER JOHN F. STEVENS, OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

Mr. Stevens was born at Gardiner, Maine, fifty-two years ago. At the age of twenty-one he was assistant engineer of the city of Minneapolis. From that position he went into railroad work. He was continuously employed in the construction of Western roads for nearly a quarter of a century. His chief distinction in his profession was attained while he was chief engineer of the Great Northern, in locating the western extension of that road to the Pacific coast. He afterward went to the Rock Island system, and resigned the second vice-presidency of that line to undertake special work for the Government in connection with Philippine railroad construction.

his services by great corporation interests, at perhaps five times the salary he was drawing when Uncle Sam hired him to dig the canal. His resignation annoyed Mr. Taft because that worthy official was about starting on a long and difficult journey to the Philippines, for purposes of public duty, and had supposed, with good reason, that the Panama situation had at last, after much trouble, been so arranged as to run smoothly for a good while to come.

*Exit Wallace,
Enter
Stevens.*

No one man, however, ever proves indispensable in the service of a great government like ours, and there are plenty of men who can dig the canal just as well as Mr. Wallace could, even though it might well be a little provoking that the Government was not fortunate enough to start in with a man who would stay long enough to accomplish something as a result of the preliminary experience and knowledge gained at the public expense. Mr.

John F. Stevens, an excellent engineer, who was to have gone with Mr. Taft to the Philippines to supervise the construction of the new railroads there, was willing to be diverted to the Panama job, and thus the place made vacant by Mr. Wallace has been filled to the satisfaction of those who are familiar with Mr. Stevens' abilities and career. General Hains and Mr. Harrod went promptly to the Isthmus to obtain the information which Mr. Wallace was supposed to possess but had not formulated for the benefit of the Government.

*Present
Canal
Problems.*

There was the more urgency for this because the international advisory board is to meet next month, to deliberate upon the larger engineering problems, such as the question of locks *versus* a sea-level canal, and so on. It is hoped that the conclusions of this advisory board may be ready to be laid before Congress next December. Certain newspapers have confused the public mind by stating that canal work is futile until such questions are decided. This is by no means true. Preliminary excavation can go on for a long period without disadvantage while the question of locks or no locks remains in suspense. There has been much talk of yellow fever on the Isthmus, but in reality the cases have been few. No one need fear, in this country, that we shall fail in the present effort to bring about a fairly healthful condition at the Isthmus through scientific sanitary methods.

*The
Labor
Question.*

The labor problem is one that the commission is working upon, and it was reported last month that it had been decided to test the relative capacity for work of Chinese, Italians, and Japanese by importing on a 500-day contract 2,000 laborers of each of these nationalities, this number being agreed upon as constituting one convenient shipload in each case. For these laborers the Government will provide housing accommodations and free medical attendance and hospitals. This plan can be tried at the Isthmus, because the immigration and labor laws of the United States do not apply there, and it is greatly to be hoped that the experiment may go on without too much adverse criticism on the part of those in the United States who, as representing the cause of American labor, would instinctively be opposed to the importation of Asiatics, and also to the contract system. It is to be remembered that the conditions on the Isthmus are peculiar and anomalous, and that no American labor in the proper sense would care to go there, with surroundings of life and work so much more

agreeable here at home. There is no use denying the fact that the most efficient way to build the canal would probably be to employ Chinese laborers and let them go back to China when the work is done. The Civic Federation has, in its so-called "Welfare Department," a happy thought which it is proceeding to carry out with its accustomed energy, and with the hearty approval of the Government. It is sending men to Panama to look into the whole question of the opportunities for recreation and those minor facilities that belong to the decencies and the comforts of the life of workingmen. Panama is devoid of attractions and proper opportunities for the employment of leisure time, and undoubtedly the work of the Civic Federation will be of much benefit.

*Chinese
Exclusion—
(1) The Higher
Class.*

Apologizing for the question of Chinese labor on the Isthmus, it is worthwhile to note the great revival of the discussion of the exclusion of the Chinese from this country. A situation existed which had come to be so intolerable to the educated Chinese that they had begun to find a way very effectively to call our attention to the barbarity to which we have been subjecting them. The exclusion of Chinese laborers is one thing, and the visiting of indignities upon merchants, scholars, students, officials, and well-to-do personages who seek to come here for one purpose or another,—those purposes usually being for our own honor and profit,—is a very different thing. Yet our immigration and port officials have, as a rule, so construed the laws as to subject Oriental personages, with all their dignity and old-world culture, to the sort of treatment that belonged in the worst period before the war to the administration of the fugitive-slave laws. We have paused at nothing except the branding of these Chinese gentlemen with red-hot irons. Happily, President Roosevelt had ordered this thing stopped with a peremptoriness and a vigor that will have a good deal of effect. The boycotting of American goods in China, however, by the educated classes has already gone very far. Many of our people think of China as a land of ignorant coolies who are so inferior to ourselves as to rise scarcely to the plane of human beings. The fact is that China contains a greater number of educated and cultivated people than any other country in the world. Their culture is not like ours, but it is based upon long study of literature, ethics, and philosophy, and it has been transmitted through many generations. The Chinese have not well learned how to act together; otherwise we should never have dared to treat them recklessly and unfairly.

*Chinese
Exclusion—
(2) The
Laborers.*

The exclusion of common Asiatic labor from this country has rested upon a totally different principle. Such laborers did not come here to remain, or to become part and parcel of our body politic. Their injection in large numbers into our economic life was at a period when it wrought great disturbance of those conditions which were making for the well-being of the families of American workmen, who had a right to seek the maintenance of our customary American standards of living. It is now an open question whether or not conditions have not so greatly changed that it would not be to our advantage to permit some, if not a very large number, of Chinese laborers to come here to do the hard work that must be done if the Western part of this country is to go forward rapidly. The country as a whole will await the verdict of the Pacific coast States upon this question. Until the law is changed, there will, of course, be strict enforcement of the provisions against the immigration of Chinese laborers. But there must now be a fair and open discussion of the question whether the past reasons for such exclusion continue to hold good. The Chamber of Commerce of Portland, Ore., considers that the times have changed, and that "the Pacific coast is now no more in favor of exclusion than the middle West, the East, and the South." President Wheelwright, of that chamber, has

written an important statement of the chamber's views to President Roosevelt, which was made public on July 12. It is held in this statement that

Vast areas of territory on the Pacific coast are undeveloped at the present time, and will so remain under present labor conditions, whereas, with the influx of only a tithe of the immigration that is now coming in on the Atlantic coast, lands would be cleared and improved, public highways would be built in regions where there is an entire absence of good roads, and railroad construction would take on new activity. It cannot be fairly claimed that the Chinese would interfere with the American laborer in this work, because this work is not now performed by American or any other labor, save in the most limited way. It remains practically undone, and the doing of it would not only fail to affect injuriously the present satisfactory status of the American laborer, but would open wider and higher fields for his activity and improvement, prepared largely by those who, under any circumstances, will always hold second place to him.

*Portland
Argues for
Chinese Labor.*

These Portland gentlemen not only urge the need of Chinese labor to develop the country, but also plead that the merchants and business men of the Pacific coast are in imminent danger of losing their growing trade with China through the hostile action that the Chinese are now threatening. It is held that we have not been fair or reasonable toward China in our treaty relations. Mr. Wheelwright goes on to say that "it is argued by some that China does not wish to encourage the emigration of her subjects; but care should be taken to distinguish between the Peking government and the commercial guilds, which in many respects are more truly representative of the Chinese people." Finally, speaking for the Portland Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Wheelwright advocates a new treaty with China that shall give easy entrance here to the superior classes of Chinese, and that shall, further, during the next ten years permit the coming of Chinese laborers to such an extent that they shall not in any one year exceed in number one-tenth of 1 per cent. of the population of this country. Since we have about eighty millions of people, this Portland suggestion would give us about eighty thousand Chinese laborers a year, or eight hundred thousand in the aggregate at the end of the ten-year period, not allowing, however, for those who in the meantime would have returned. It is possible that arguments against Chinese labor in the United States may still be found to hold good; but the time seems to have arrived for a reconsideration of the subject on its pure merits as relating to existing facts and conditions. Let it be discussed calmly, since there is much to be said on both sides.



"THE HEATHEN CHINEE IS PECULIAR."
He has some cards up his sleeve. Will he play them?
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

Mr. Bristow on the Panama Railroad. Hon. Joseph L. Bristow, who conducted the investigation of the postal frauds when Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, was made a special Panama Railroad commissioner when he left the Post-Office Department. He was instructed to make a report upon the Panama Railroad and its relation to steamship companies and to the services it might be fairly expected to render to the commercial world. Mr. Bristow has made a most interesting and admirable report, which has been transmitted to the President by Secretary Taft with high praise. To start with, our readers must remember that the United States Government acquired the Panama Railroad when it bought the canal zone, and that our government is in actual ownership and operation of this line connecting the ports of Colon on the Atlantic side and Panama on the Pacific. Heretofore, this little single-track line of 47 miles has served exclusively a steamship line from New York to Colon, which has been a part of its own property. It has not served steamship lines from other United States ports on the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico side. On the Pacific side, it has maintained an exclusive contract with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, sailing to San Francisco, and its facilities have not been open to other steamship companies serving other Pacific Ocean ports. Furthermore, in former years the Panama Railroad Company was really run in the interest of the pool of transcontinental railroads in the United States, which is said to have paid that company a large sum of money every month for the privilege of fixing its rates so that it might not be a disadvantageous competitor.

Some Pointed Recommendations. Mr. Bristow's recommendations are lucid and important. Inasmuch as the United States Government is building the canal for the service of national and international traffic on equal terms to all comers, he holds that the Government must, in consistency, operate the railroad upon the same principle. He advises, therefore, that the road be promptly double-tracked and improved, that its facilities be open to steamships from the Gulf ports and elsewhere, and that its exclusive contract with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company be at once abolished. He suggests that if this Pacific steamship line should withdraw its service, the Panama Railroad ought to operate, on the Pacific, a line of its own corresponding to the line it now operates on the Atlantic. He further calls attention to the fact that the Mexican railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is almost ready to be opened, running

from Salina Cruz, on the Pacific, to Coatzacoalcos, on the Atlantic, at which places fine harbors are being constructed, with wharves and warehouses, and with the best facilities for handling freight from ship to cars and from cars to ship. There seems to be good sense in his proposal that instead of our waiting for the completion of the canal we should at once begin to make the largest possible use of the Isthmus, through the development of the railroad, for American and foreign traffic. Mr. Bristow's talent for investigation,—so well demonstrated in his unearthing of the post-office frauds,—has thus been applied a second time to the advantage of the Government.

Uncle Sam's Business Projects.

The work of such trained administrators becomes ever more needful with the expansion of the Government's functions as well as with its territorial growth; for the acquisition of the Panama strip has, perforce, put Uncle Sam into the business of operating an important railroad, together with an ocean steamship line, while conditions in the Philippines have compelled our government to lay out, finance, and promote a railroad system in that far-away archipelago. These new enterprises, however, will remain small affairs when compared with the great business Uncle Sam carries on in his transmission of the letters, newspapers, and periodicals of the American people. So immense and complex is the postal service that no man understands it altogether. Thus, it is remarked at Washington that Mr. Madden, the Third Assistant Postmaster-General, is the only man who understands the laws, rules, and regulations relating to the carrying of second-class mail matter,—that is to say, of regularly entered newspapers and periodicals. But Mr. Madden himself confesses that there are some things he does not understand, so obscured by technical rulings has the business become. The revision of the postal laws is one of the most important pieces of work that lies before Congress for the early future. Meanwhile, however, it would be a great mistake to disparage carelessly the vast administrative machine that Postmaster-General Cortelyou is learning how to direct.

A Detail of Post-Office Work.

A little side-light upon the problems of the postal service is contained in some correspondence between this office and the Postmaster-General last month. A subscriber to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS in Nome, Alaska, had written complaining of the failure of the postal service to bring periodicals to that distant quarter. The editor forwarded

the letter to Mr. Cortelyou, and within a week received from him an accurate account,—uncommonly interesting as it is,—of the conditions under which the Government undertakes to provide the scattered settlements in Alaska with mail matter from the United States. Omitting a preliminary sentence or two, Mr. Cortelyou's letter reads as follows :

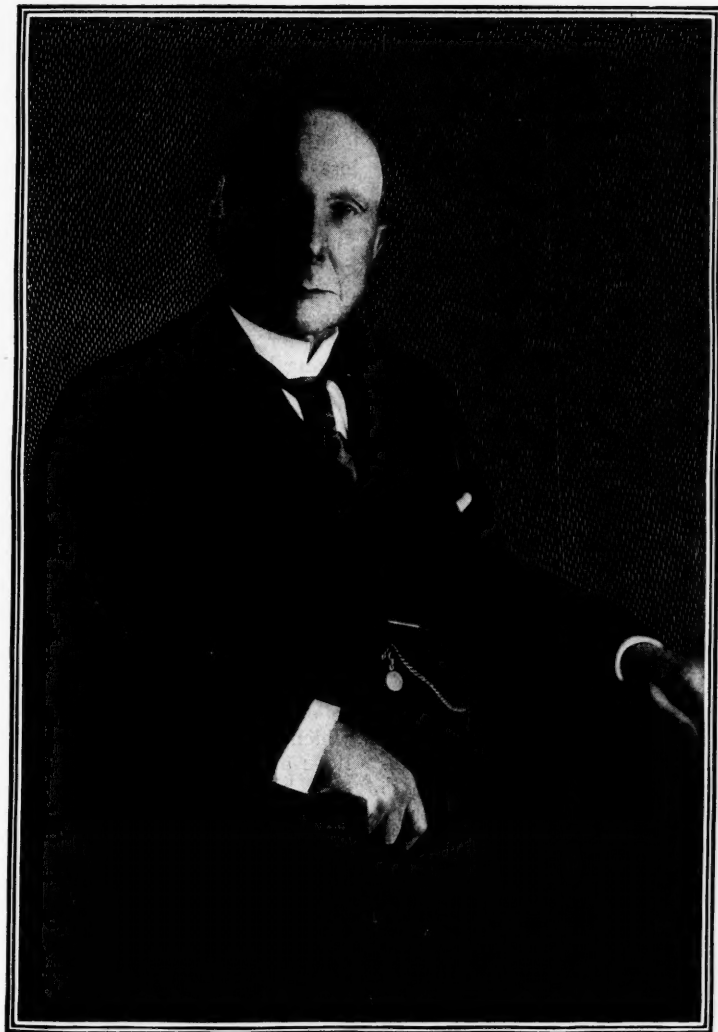
In reply, I have to say that during the open season of navigation in Alaskan waters the department undertakes to receive and transport any weight of any class of matter to nearly all Alaskan post-offices, and the same is true also during the winter time as to those post-offices on the southern coast which can be reached by steamers at that season. But during the winter the difficulties attending transportation to interior Alaskan offices are so great that it has been necessary to place some limitation on the weight of mail to be carried. It must be remembered that in the winter time such mails must be carried on sleds drawn almost exclusively by dogs, or by reindeer in a few instances, and that, too, in a climate where the thermometer goes down to fifty degrees below zero, or lower. A few years ago, when the department first undertook to send mail to Nome and other western Alaskan points in the winter, the only feasible route was from Seattle, Wash., to Skagway, Alaska, by steamer, thence across Canadian territory, *via* Dawson, to Eagle, Alaska (a part of which was by dog-sled), and thence from Eagle, near the eastern boundary line, to Nome, on the western coast, by dog-sled. The cost of such transportation is very considerable. If we give no consideration to the cost of carrying mail by railroad from New York City to Seattle, 3,235 miles, or by steamer from Seattle to Skagway, 1,000 miles, or from Skagway to Eagle, most of this across Canadian territory, about 600 miles, and have regard only to that part of the haul which is entirely on Alaskan soil from Eagle to Nome, 1,163 miles, all of which must be covered by dogs, with a limit of about 400 pounds per trip, we find that the cost is \$3 per pound. Of course, you are aware that the revenue which the department receives for carrying magazines and newspapers from publishers in New York to subscribers in Nome, a distance of about 6,000 miles, is one cent per pound.

However, very marked progress has been made in the mail facilities for western Alaskan points since the service was begun, a few years ago. It was soon found that, in addition to the unavoidable difficulties, this service was further hampered by the limited amount of mail for which transportation could be obtained across the Canadian soil, and that an all-American route was desirable. When the War Department sent out an expedition to determine as to the feasibility of a military trail from Valdez, on the southern coast, to Eagle, near the eastern boundary, an agent of the Post-Office Department accompanied the party, and shortly after their trip was completed a mail route was established between those points, a distance of about 450 miles, which brought some relief to the offices in the eastern part of Alaska. Later, in the summer of 1903, this department sent its agent to explore as to the feasibility of a more direct route from the Copper River country to Tanana, at the confluence of the Yukon and Tanana rivers ; and as a result of this investigation a mail route was established for the following winter from Valdez to Tanana,

620 miles. This service was somewhat experimental, but it met with sufficient success to warrant the department—in the following winter, 1904-05—in increasing the trips and the weight of mail to be carried, so that during that winter, for the first time, we were able to send, in addition to the letter mail, a limited quantity of newspaper mail for Yukon and western Alaskan points. The cost of carrying mail from Valdez to Nome over this route and connecting routes, a distance of about 1,183 miles, entirely by dog-sleds, is \$4.07 a pound. Contracts have already been arranged for next winter, 1905-06, under which provision has been made for carrying a still larger quantity of mail, which will provide for carrying an increased quantity of newspapers, and probably some magazines.

I think it will thus be seen that we are making some progress in this matter, and it is the intention of the department to further improve the mail facilities for all Alaskan post-offices as rapidly as the unusual conditions prevailing there shall permit.

In many phases, the great business *A Gift of \$10,000,000 for Colleges.* of educating the young people of the United States in this summer-vacation period has had its due attention by reason of conventions, public addresses, large gifts, and the like. Undoubtedly the most important single announcement of recent weeks in the sphere of educational effort has been the gift in one lump sum of \$10,000,000 by Mr. John D. Rockefeller to the General Education Board for the promotion of education in the United States. While no conditions whatsoever are attached by Mr. Rockefeller to this gift,—the largest single offering ever made at one time for education, with the exception of Mr. Carnegie's equal gift to the trustees of the Carnegie Institution at Washington,—it was understood to be the policy of the board, with the acquiescence of Mr. Rockefeller, in the acceptance of this gift, to use it mainly for the advancement of education of college grade in all parts of the country, by methods to be systematized and put into effect in the early future. This board was organized some three years ago, and obtained a charter at the hands of Congress. It began its existence then with a gift of a million dollars from Mr. Rockefeller, to be spent for promoting education in the South. The work of the board has been highly useful, its first president having been the late William H. Baldwin, Jr., who was succeeded by Mr. Robert C. Ogden. Dr. Wallace Buttrick has from the beginning been the executive officer of the board, and has maintained an office which now contains an extensive and accurate collection of data touching the conditions of education in almost every portion of the South. Mr. Rockefeller's new gift enables the board to extend its efforts to all parts of the country, and Mr. Starr J. Murphy will share with Dr. Buttrick, on the plan of a division of



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MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER.

territory, the responsible work of executing the business of this great trust for education. The board will endeavor to do its work so usefully that Mr. Rockefeller and others may some time in the future be inclined to use it as the agency through which to make further large gifts to the cause of American education.

A Question of Ethics. Composed as it is of men having at heart the welfare of the country, this board received Mr. Rockefeller's gift with great satisfaction and with high hope of using it for profoundly useful ends. As it now stands, this sum of \$10,000,000 belongs, not to Mr. Rockefeller, but to the cause of American education. Those who criticise it as

in some manner not fit to be received for such ends, because of its original donor's connection with the Standard Oil Company, are not to be deprived of their right of opinion, yet they do not stand upon tenable ground. There is no more reason why Mr. Rockefeller's money should not be given to education through the General Education Board than why it should not be given to the cause of public schools through taxes levied against Mr. Rockefeller personally or against the widely distributed property of the corporations in which he is a stockholder. There should be no sense of obligation to the donor on the part of the educational institutions that receive gifts of money for their work. The only obligation that sensible and conscientious

men can feel when money for schools or for benevolent work is placed in their hands is the obligation that rests upon them to use such money well in doing the work for which they have received it. Men who as trustees or other officers of a college think they receive a favor when they take money for the education of young Americans are of confused mind, and in some respects unequal to their responsibilities.

Social Wealth and Its Right Use. In our opinion, it should be Mr. Rockefeller's purpose to distribute far greater sums than he has yet given for purposes of general use. Whether or not the business methods of his companies have been unfair, it is the wealth produced by the efforts of his fellow-citizens all over the country that has, through a peculiar combination of economic conditions, somehow been poured into his private coffers. Under different or wiser conditions, no man could possibly have acquired such wealth as that which Mr. Rockefeller now possesses. The best thing that men so situated can do is actively to promote the tendency,—a natural and healthful tendency in a country of equality such as our country is,—to a more normal diffusion of benefits and a wider distribution of prosperity. Let everybody, therefore, welcome great gifts such as this one to the General Education Board, and hope that what Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Rockefeller are doing to distribute their possessions may go forward in the hands of both of them at an accelerated pace, and that many other men of wealth may set themselves seriously to like tasks. Let them try to distribute a good part of their possessions, while also helping to bring about conditions in the world of business and in the realm of law under which it will no longer be feasible for so much of the wealth created by the united efforts of the whole industrial community to be diverted to the private coffers of a few.

The British Parliament. Premier Balfour has announced that there will be no early dissolution of Parliament, and intimates that the close of the session will not occur before September 1. This postponement of the government's fate is possible, even despite the constant losses in the by-elections. A political *coup* which will strengthen the present government and correspondingly weaken the opposition was attempted early in July by the presentation in the Commons of a resolution embodying a government scheme to redistribute the seats in Parliament. Such a redistribution has been needed for some time, owing to changes in the population. The scheme proposed does not

alter the total membership of the House materially, but redistributes the representation in such a manner that England will gain 17 seats, Scotland 4, and Wales 1, while Ireland will lose 22. Of course, the opposition will fight the scheme. Meanwhile, British political circles are wrought up over the Butler report on the South African army scandal and the almost certain passage of the aliens bill. The last half of the present session of Parliament has been under the Speakership of Mr. James William Lowther, who succeeds Mr. Gully, the latter having been retired with a peerage and a pension. Mr. Lowther is the first Conservative Speaker the House has known for many years. He has been chairman of a number of committees, and has always served acceptably. The Speaker of the House of Commons, it will be remembered, does not retire with the defeat of his party, but remains in office as long as his inclination and health permit.

Army Scandals and Immigration. An army scandal of large proportions in South Africa has been uncovered in pitiless detail by Sir William Butler's report. Briefly, it consisted of a clever scheme on the part of some British officers by which, when the Boer war was over, some millions of pounds' worth of military stores were sold by the government to contractors at a nominal price and immediately bought back by the government from the same contractors at a very high price, there having been no need to buy or sell them at all. A number of high army officials have been implicated. Some of these officials were so high in the war office that the present government is accused of having attempted to hush up the scandal. It is expected, however, that prosecution of the offenders will follow. This, coming at a time when Field Marshal Lord Roberts, in a recent speech in the House of Lords, deliberately expressed his opinion as a practical soldier that the military force of Great Britain is inadequate, imperfectly trained, and totally unfit to uphold Great Britain as a first-class power, has made our transatlantic cousins very uneasy. The aliens bill, which is a government measure, will make a radical change in the policy of England toward immigration from Continental Europe. England has always been an open country, and she owes her preëminence in more than one industry to the large number of Flemings and Huguenots who came to her from the Continent in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Up to the present, an immigrant arriving on English shores has been subject to no examination and asked no questions. The rapid increase in immigration, par-

ticularly of Russian and Polish Jews, who crowd into the cities, particularly the East End of London, has recently, however, so complicated urban living problems of England that some immigration restriction has become necessary. Generally speaking, the aliens bill is patterned on the American immigration code. New-comers who cannot prove that they are self-sustaining, mentally capable, and that they have not been convicted of any crime, will be deported under much the same conditions as they would be from the United States.

Norway, Sweden, and the Kaiser. Despite rumors of war based on perfectly intelligible mobilization orders issued by the Swedish and Norwegian governments, the situation in the Scandinavian peninsula has cleared considerably during the past month, and it is now as certain as any future event can ever be that, whatever the future relations of the two countries, Norway will not be compelled by Sweden to reënter the union on its old terms. King Oscar has accepted the loss of half his realm with philosophic resignation, and has declared, in words of dignity, that "A union to which both parties do not give their free and willing consent would be of no real advantage to either." Furthermore, the dissolution is declared complete in the royal address to the Riksdag, which assembled in extraordinary session, on June 23, to deal with the crisis, in the paragraph which says:

But Sweden is averse to coercing Norway into its maintenance, which could only be done by force of arms and by a fratricidal war. Besides, in those conditions the union, established in the interests of peace and mutual support, would lose its very *raison d'être*. Sweden would, therefore, rather consent to its dissolution than have to force Norway to remain in the union against her will.

The offer of the Norwegian crown to Prince Charles of Denmark, grandson of the Danish King, who married an English princess, made early in July, has been accepted so far as the Danish ruling family is concerned, and seems not likely to meet with opposition by Sweden. The international significance of the new status in Scandinavia is emphasized by the recent trip of Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany to Sweden, during which, it is rumored, the possibility of a Swedish-German alliance was discussed. The projected visit of the German Emperor to Copenhagen is thought, in some quarters, to indicate that the Kaiser is endeavoring to detach Denmark from her old political and dynastic alliance with England by aiding in the accession of a Danish prince to the Norwegian throne, the Kaiser's ulterior motive, according



PRINCE CHARLES OF DENMARK.

(Who has been offered the crown of Norway.)

to the political prophets, being the complete cutting off of Russia from the Baltic.

Cabinet Changes in Spain and Holland.

Similar political combinations have been responsible for the fall of the Spanish and Dutch cabinets, although the causes in the case of Spain were chiefly economic, while those in Holland were ecclesiastical and sociological. In two years, Spain has seen six ministries, all Conservative, and differing only in minor details of policy. Now the Villaverde cabinet, which has been in power only since last January, is discredited by a large majority of the Cortes. Questions of tariff and finance and a conciliatory attitude on the Moroccan question were the causes of Signor Villaverde's downfall. King Alfonso summoned the Liberal leader, Gen. Montero Rios, who succeeded in forming a cabinet including General Weyler as minister of war. In the latter part of June the quadrennial Dutch elections took place, and the campaign was a brisk one between Liberals and Conservatives, resulting in a victory for the former, who had combined with the Anti-revolutionists. The latter party includes Calvinists, Roman Catholics, and other very diverse elements. Dr. Abraham Kuyper, Calvinist preacher, head of the State Church,



BARON GEZA FEJERVARY, HUNGARIAN PREMIER.

("Representing an unparliamentary, unconstitutional situation which will be soon ended by the passive resistance of the Magyars.")

professor, scholar, and editor, steps out, charged with a do-nothing policy. Dr. Kuyper has won praise for his handling of the great strike of 1901, for holding his country strictly to its neutrality during the Boer war, and for the nationalization of the free university at Amsterdam. In the matter of tariffs and the management of the Java rebellion, he has been criticised. Mr. de Beaufort, former minister of foreign affairs, is the recognized leader in the second chamber, and is likely to become premier.

*The Passive
Resistance of
Hungary.*

While not exactly parallel situations, there is sufficient similarity in the relations of Austria-Hungary to those of Norway and Sweden recently terminated to furnish a good deal of speculation in political and journalistic circles as to the early possibility of Hungary breaking away from Austria. The tension in the dual monarchy, while relaxed somewhat, is by no means ended. Baron Fejervary, the new premier, who has announced himself as only a temporary official to finish routine work before the assembling of the Budapest parliament in September, has been rebuffed by the Hungarian Diet, which in the first week of July passed a vote of no confidence. It is a strange situation. The Fejervary cabinet is op-

posed to the coalition majority, it being, according to their idea, both unparliamentary and unconstitutional. If the Emperor-King persists in his refusal to grant the Hungarian demands and orders new elections, he will no doubt find himself in a worse position than he is in at present. It is to be regretted that he cannot accept the situation frankly, hard as it is, in the way King Oscar of Sweden has done. Count Apponyi's discussion of the Hungarian demands on another page of this issue (203) shows how impossible it is to ever completely reconcile the Austrian and Magyar conceptions of the union. The difference is fundamental. Austria, like Sweden, has evolved from the monarchic idea of privileges granted to the people from the ruler. Hungary's evolution has been from the democratic idea of powers conceded to the government by the people. The trouble began when the people of Hungary elected the Emperors of Austria, and their lineal descendants, Kings of Hungary. The Hapsburg dynasty has always aimed at the creation of a strong, centralized Austrian power. The Hungarian idea, however, will become clear to Americans if they can imagine Mexico enacting a law making the Presidents of the United States, in succession, Presidents of Mexico, to



FRANCIS JOSEPH: "I am sure I thought, Oscar, that you were a much better rider."

OSCAR: "Look out for yourself; your horse, Hungary, is getting balky."

From *Boland Zatul* (Budapest).

exercise in Mexico only such powers as are conferred on the Mexican President by the Mexican constitution. The Hungarians believe that their policy of passive resistance will win in the end.

*The End
of the
Concordat.*

After more than three months' work, the French Chamber of Deputies has passed, amid great excitement, a bill for the separation of Church and State, by a vote of 341 to 233. The measure is practically certain to pass the Senate. This measure is a somewhat more reasonable one than that brought in by M. Combes, and which resulted in his resignation of the premiership. It provides for the continued support of the clergy (Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Hebrew) now receiving subsidies from the state, but allows no support for their successors, so that gradually the subventions will disappear. The churches and other places of worship are to belong to the state, but they are to be leased to congregations consisting of the churches or denominations now worshipping in them. This will bring the Catholic Church in France into much the same relation to the government as it bears to the government of this country. In France, however, the government control will be much closer, and the authorities will have the right to suppress any church meetings that they may regard as prejudicial to public order. This is a practical abrogation of the Concordat, which has for over a century limited the powers of the Pope in France and acted as a powerful influence in opposition to the Church. This measure of separation, as constituted at present, is satisfactory neither to the Roman Catholic reactionaries nor to the Socialistic freethinkers, but it will probably satisfy the majority of the French people, who, while not opposed to the Church, are in favor of its separation from the state.

*The Pope's
Temporal
Power.*

More than one evidence has come during the present summer that Pope Pius X. is becoming more and more imbued with the modern spirit. Not only has the "Prisoner of the Vatican" expressed his desire to take his summer rest outside of Rome, in the mountains of the north, but reports from the Italian capital on reliable authority announce that his Holiness has issued an encyclical permitting, and even advising, Catholic voters to take part in future parliamentary elections, and, still more remarkable, has indirectly inquired of the Italian Government whether it is inclined to pay the arrears of the subsidy offered to the Pope by the Guarantee Law of 1871. For thirty years,—ever since the occupation of the Holy City by the Italian troops, after the for-

mal establishment of the Italian Kingdom,—the Vatican has adhered to the irreconcilable position of Pius IX. This pontiff, in his famous encyclical "*non expedit*," forbade the Catholic voters registered in the kingdom of Italy to be either "elected or electors," and, as a further expression of Papal refusal to recognize the "usurping government's authority," he indignantly refused the annual appropriation (\$645,000) for the maintenance of the Papal court. His successor, Leo XIII., adhered to this policy unswervingly. Pius X., however, discerns the signs of the times. It has been said that there are three great powers in Italy,—the Church, the monarchy, and socialism. The Vatican has come to the conclusion that the last, which is held responsible for the breaking away from the Concordat in France, is a more dangerous enemy of the Church than the monarchy. The Quirinal itself fears socialism, which is so strong in the Italy of to-day, and desires the Catholic voter to support it. At the last general elections, many Catholics, despite the Papal prohibition, participated in the elections. This encyclical simply authorizes what is already a fact. In view of the agreement of both Vatican and Quirinal, therefore, on the desirability of combating socialism, it seems probable that not only will Catholic citizens hereafter take part in the national and local elections, but that the government of Rome will, in the end, hand over to the Pope the arrears (now amounting to some \$22,000,000) in the annuity which was voted by the Law of Guarantees thirty years ago.

*France,
Germany, and
Morocco.*

Having been assured that her special interests in Morocco would be safeguarded, and that no attempt would be made to discuss the Franco-English and Franco-Spanish compacts of last year, France consented, early in July, to participate in an international conference. Germany, on her part, announced that the conference is not directed in opposition to any of the treaties or engagements of France. This agreement is regarded as both a German and a French triumph, according to the standpoint from which it is viewed. M. Delcassé, whose resignation was brought about because of his attitude on this very Moroccan question, in the course of a recent interview published in the *Gaulois*, strongly advised his countrymen to adhere to and strengthen their agreement with England. Germany, he intimated, is the irreconcilable enemy of the republic, and, since Russia has been weakened, an alliance of France with Great Britain would insure, not only the safety of the republic, but the peace of Europe.



From the New York Tribune.

A VIEW OF THE HARBOR OF ODESSA, SHOWING THE CITY HALL TO THE RIGHT.

*The Mutinous
Battleship
"Potemkin."*

The story of the mutinous battleship *Prince Potemkin Tavritchesky*, at Odessa, reads like some melodrama of the sea. For more than a week the *Potemkin*, a fine battleship of 12,000 tons, a speed of 17½ knots, with twelve guns and a crew of more than 800 men,—perhaps the finest warship remaining to Russia,—held the entire Black Sea fleet in a state of terror and roamed at will from Russian to Roumanian and Turkish ports. On June 28, while the city of Odessa was in a state of open revolt, with the troops fighting rioters behind barricades in the streets, the *Potemkin* sailed into the harbor flying the red flag. A body of marines with field guns landed and placed on the dock the corpse of one of their fellow-sailors who, they declared, had been shot by the captain because he had protested against the quality of food served to the crew. Under penalty of bombarding the city, the sailors demanded that their dead comrade should have the honors of a military funeral. The revolutionists on shore joined with the mutineers, and an imposing public funeral was actually granted, including a procession. As there were no warships in the harbor and the troops were engaged in quelling the riots, the authorities were unable to deal with the situation. The soldiers fired on and killed hundreds of the mob, who were revolting against general economic conditions, but particularly against the mobilization. In retaliation, many ships lying at anchor in the harbor, and

many buildings, including government structures, were burned. The loss to the city during the riots is estimated at \$10,000,000. Odessa is Russia's chief seaport, and the fourth city, in size, in the empire, with a population of half a million. It is the center of the grain trade for southern Russia, and in its harbor are trading ships of all nations.

*Spread of
the
Mutiny.*

After firing a few shots, because of an attempt by the authorities to seize the mutineers on shore, the *Potemkin* left the docks, but remained with her guns trained on the city. Admiral Chouknin, commander of the Black Sea fleet, then in St. Petersburg, at once telegraphed to Admiral Krüger, who was at Sebastopol, to proceed at once to Odessa with warships. The report that the *Potemkin* had surrendered was followed by the announcement that the crew of another battleship, the *Georgi Pobiedonosetz*, had joined in the mutiny, declining to obey Admiral Krüger's orders to proceed to Sebastopol. The Russian commander, finding all his crews mutinous, decided to dismantle the entire fleet, and some of the men were actually sent ashore and the vessels temporarily put out of commission. Meanwhile, the *Potemkin* was at large, and had proceeded to Kustenzi, a port in Roumania, where she coaled and revictualled. The entire available naval force of the Black Sea had been sent in pursuit of her, one torpedo-boat destroyer

following the mutinous battleship into the Roumanian harbor. Orders had been given to sink her without parley, but the spirit of disaffection among the entire naval force in Russia's southern waters had rendered this impossible. While in Kustenji, the authorities on the *Potemkin* (reported to be a committee, under the command of one Matuchenko, appointed by the revolutionists) handed to the prefect a proclamation to the powers, declaring war on all Russian vessels refusing to join them, and announcing that they intended to respect neutral territory and shipping. The proclamation further declared: "The decisive struggle against the Russian Government has begun. We consider it to be our duty to declare that we guarantee the complete inviolability of foreign ships navigating the Black Sea, as well as the inviolability of foreign ports." No attempt was made to interfere with foreign shipping, although one Italian collier was seized and her cargo immediately appropriated.



VICE-ADMIRAL BIRILEV.

(Who succeeds Admiral Avellan as Russian minister of marine).

Collapse of Russia's Navy. The *Potemkin* then left Roumanian waters and sailed into the Crimean port of Theodosia, where she received more supplies. It was then learned that a torpedo boat had also mutinied with her and was following her fortunes. Several days later, the *Potemkin*, having successfully eluded all the naval force that Russia could muster in the Black Sea, again returned to Kustenji. There she surrendered to the Roumanian authorities and was by them handed over to Admiral Krüger (not, however, before the mutinous crew had opened her sea-cocks and sunk her in shallow water), the seamen delivering themselves over to the Roumanian Government as foreign deserters. Ac-



THE BLACK SEA LITTORAL.

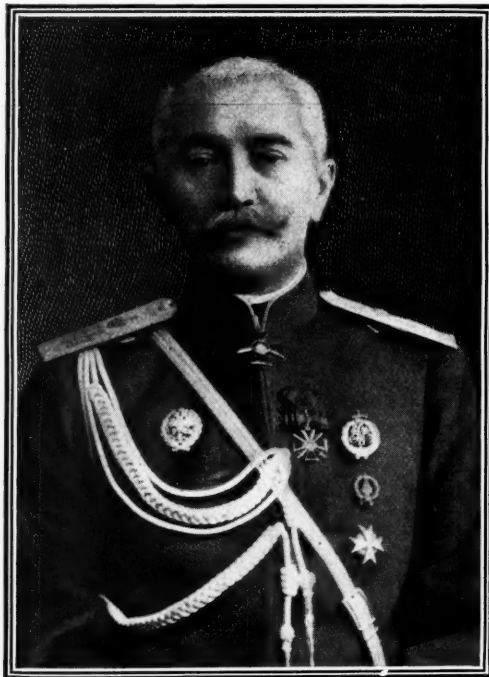
(Showing the points touched at by the *Potemkin* in her "pirate" cruise.)

cording to reports in London papers, thirty of the crew of the battleship who surrendered to the Russian authorities were shot as mutineers. Technically, these men are pirates, but as they refrained from depredations upon any but Russian vessels and commerce, and, moreover, as the mutiny has spread to Reval, Cronstadt, Libau, and Riga, and was the result of the workings of a secret revolutionary organization, it may be doubted whether they were not waging legitimate warfare. The second vessel, the *Georgi Pobedyonozetz*, soon afterward surrendered to the authorities, and, so far as the naval force in the Black Sea was concerned, the mutiny was over. Russia's power in the Black Sea, however, is utterly destroyed, and, while something like quiet has been restored in Odessa, the situation in the middle of July was still critical, and bloodshed, pillage, and plunder had not ceased. The entire district had been declared under martial law. There could be little doubt that the whole agitation in the Black Sea and Baltic ports was organized by the revolutionists, as were also the riots among the reservists at Kiev and other points. It is beginning to look as though, after all, Russian bayonets could not be trusted. The autocracy now relies upon the troops, and the troops alone. It can no longer trust the slender remnants of its navy. How much longer will it be able to trust the troops? The navy has practically gone over to the enemy, and the insurrectionary chiefs are devoting all their energies to seducing the army. All this while the government dallies with paper reform schemes, and the bureaucracy calmly proceeds to deny the application of any of the Czar's promises of reform. Dr. Dillon's article on the progress

of the revolution (on page 197) is a graphic presentation of the Czar's attitude toward his Liberal subjects,—“the tinsel of promise, not the gold of achievement.”

*Progress of
the Russian
Revolution.*

Riot and mutiny, bloodshed and disorder, have become so much the order of the day throughout Russia that the killing of three thousand people in Łódz and two thousand in Warsaw by the Cossacks has come to be referred to in official reports as a minor affair. All Poland and the Caucasus are aflame with industrial war, which may at any moment become political revolt. Rioters have been fighting behind barricades in the streets of Warsaw and Łódz, and meanwhile the mobilization of troops goes on. Again, says the *Slovo*, the popular St. Petersburg daily—“again the tears of our wives and children; again mobilization, passive, mechanical obedience to orders which are not understood and not explained; again fields abandoned just before the harvests; again fresh burdens for the impoverished,—and so our mute discontent grows apace!” The jails of Warsaw and Odessa are reported to be filled to the bursting, while starving peasants roam the fields of western and southern Russia, pillaging



GENERAL MAXIMOVITCH, GOVERNOR OF WARSAW.
(He has made a sanguinary record in “repressing disorder.”)

and destroying. The majority of the landed proprietors of the south are reported to be voluntarily conceding to the revolutionary peasants one-third of their harvests, and in many instances of their live stock, also. Reports of widespread mutiny in the army are frequent, and an examination of the Russian journals shows that the murder of small police officials is so frequent that the Associated Press has ceased to record them. Early in July, Count Shuvalov, prefect of the Moscow police, was assassinated, and several days later a large quantity of dynamite was discovered near the palace in Moscow, in which the Czar, it was reported, was planning to stay during his visit.

*The Czar
and
His People.*

At the presentation of the delegation of Moscow zemstvoists to the Czar, late in June, Prince Troubetskoi, of Moscow University, denounced the bureaucracy, and appealed to the Czar in these words:

Cease to give heed to their intrigues; summon the people's elect; listen to them; therein lies our only hope of escape from civil war and a shameful peace. You alone can unite Russia again.

Instead of taking offense at such plain-spoken sentiments, the Emperor replied, in a strain which shows his native goodness of heart, as follows:

I am firmly convinced that Russia will emerge strengthened from the trials she is undergoing, and that there will be established soon, as formerly, a union between the Czar and all Russia, a communion between myself and the men of Russian soil. This union and communion must serve as a basis for the order of things—stand for the original principles of Russia. I have faith in your sincere desire to help me in the task.

“My will,” the Czar continued, “is the sovereign and unalterable will, and the admission of elected representatives to works of state will be regularly accomplished. I watch every day and devote myself to this work.”

*The
Bureaucracy
Intervenes.*

A few days later, however, while the zemstvoists were rejoicing over the Emperor's words, the minister of the interior issued a statement denying the inferences of several of the journals that the Czar had promised a constitutional assembly like those of other nations,

whereas it was clearly shown by the Emperor's words that the conditions of such a convocation were to be based on an order of things responding to Russian autocratic principles, and his majesty's words contain absolutely not the least indication of the possibility of modifying the fundamental laws of the empire.

Newspapers are prohibited from publishing any but the official version, and from drawing from

it any unwarranted deductions. This is in line with the regular procedure of the bureaucracy, which admits the truth of his majesty's promises but denies their application in any special case. Not a single reform mentioned in the ukase of December 25, last, has as yet become a law. The Committee of Ministers has decided, according to the *Official Messenger*, that the rescript of March 3, declaring the Czar's intention to convoke representatives of the nation, does not affect the question of legislative unity, which remains, as now, dependent entirely upon the Czar's will. As Dr. Dillon points out, in his review of the situation in another portion of this REVIEW, the bureaucracy is identical with the autocracy, and it is not bent on suicide.

The Coming Assembly of the People.

Owing to an alleged plot among the Liberal leaders to depose the Czar and substitute a regency for the little Czarevitch by four grand dukes, the long-looked-for zemstvo congress of all Russia, set for July 19, was forbidden. Even the reactionaries are beginning to distrust the Emperor, whom they reproach for excessive weakness and incompetence. They demand a stronger ruler, who will be able to keep the reformers in check. The congress met, however, and without police interference. It had been hoped that the Czar would go to Moscow himself to open the congress and proclaim a representative assembly. Yielding to the fears of the reactionaries, however, at the last moment Emperor Nicholas declined. The congress was fairly representative, as it contained delegates, not only from the zemstvos themselves, but from the dumas, or municipal assemblies, scattered all over the empire. Count Heyden, the eminent Liberal, presided, and 284 elected delegates attended, besides more than 50 prominent reformers and half-a-dozen reporters. The suggested municipal assembly of Minister of the Interior Bulyghin was voted unsatisfactory, and, according to the correspondent of the *London Standard*, the discussion of a constitution was begun. This instrument, the correspondent declares further, is based on the British constitution, with occasional suggestions from the French. In substance it is as follows:

It leaves the Czar in command of the armed forces, the right of veto without any expressed limitation on the prerogatives of a sovereign. It proposes the formation of a cabinet on the British model, the Czar summoning a kanzler, or prime minister, and appointing the other ministers according to the premier's selection. The national finances are placed under the control of the chambers, whose members will have the right to impeach the ministers. The legislature is to fix the succession to the throne, and foreign treaties are to be controlled by the chambers. The right of legislation



THE FIELD OF THE LATEST MILITARY DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FAR EAST.

rests with the chambers alone, and all men are equally subject to the law of the land. Special paragraphs abolish the passport system, the scrutiny of correspondence, and the censorship. The budget is to be passed, first in the national assembly, and then accepted by the zemski sobor before it is presented to the Czar. The election regulations provide for 840 members, representing the whole empire, without distinction of creed or race. There will be, roughly, one representative for each 150,000 of the population.

The Japanese Invade Siberia.

Despite General Linevich's cheerful assurances to St. Petersburg that he is ready to advance, and the reported protests of his generals against peace negotiations, even such a chauvinistic journal as the *Russky Invalid*, the organ of the Russian army, has admitted that there is little hope for a Russian victory. While Linevich is estimated to have not more than 400,000 men with him, the six combined Japanese armies under Marshal Oyama (those of Kuroki, Oku, Nodzu, Nogi, Kawamura, and Hasegawa) are estimated to number at least 550,000, and probably more

than 600,000. Many reports had been circulated in the newspapers to the effect that the Japanese enveloping movement had progressed sufficiently to isolate and cut off Vladivostok, but, up to the middle of July, this was not clear. Two points, however, were certain. A small force, assisted by the cruisers and gunboats of Admiral Kataoka, on July 7 landed on the island of Saghalien, at the chief town and fortified post of Korsakovsk. After a brief encounter, the Russians fled, leaving the entire south of the island in the hands of the Japanese. This marks the first entry upon Russian territory proper. On July 17, General Linevich reported that the Japanese had landed troops on the shores of Olga Bay, one hundred and fifty miles north of Vladivostok, thus invading Russian territory on the mainland. Saghalien is for the most part a barren, rugged island, with an extremely severe climate. It is some six hundred miles long, and from twenty to ninety miles wide, and is really part of the Japanese chain of islands. Up to the middle of the past century, it was part of the island empire, but by sharp diplomacy Russia obtained it in return for some of the Kurile Islands. It has always been regarded, however, as a part of Japan, and, for sentimental reasons if for no other, the Mikado's empire has felt that she must have Saghalien. There are some valuable mineral deposits on the island, and the Sea of Okhotsk, to the north and east, teems with fish. It has a population of about twenty thousand, chiefly criminals, for Saghalien has been used as a penal settlement of Russia since the beginning of 1900, when banishment to Siberia for political purposes was abandoned. The cession of Saghalien Island has always been emphatically insisted upon as a necessary condition of peace



IN DOUBT.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "I don't feel quite certain that I can separate those fellows with this branch."—From the *Borszem Janikó* (Budapest).



A NEW GREAT POWER IN THE COUNCIL OF THE NATIONS.

(Japan forces her way to a seat at the international board, and so all the others must sit closer.)—From *Ulk* (Berlin).

on the part of Japan. Its actual possession before peace negotiations have begun will undoubtedly be an advantage to Japan in her negotiations.

Although an agreement for an armistice in Manchuria did not follow immediately upon the decision of the belligerents to appoint peace commissioners, and in spite of the fact that the Japanese advance had, by the middle of July, brought Marshal Oyama's armies across the border into Siberia and had given them practical possession of the island of Saghalien, preparations for the coming treaty of Washington had, nevertheless, gone steadily forward. An outline of the careers of the chief negotiators on both sides is found on another page of this issue. The legal and secretarial assistants to the negotiators represent some of the best diplomatic talent of both countries. The full Russian commission is made up as follows: The two chief negotiators; then Professor de Martens, professor of international law at the University of St. Petersburg; Mr. Shipov, director of the treasury department; Major-General Yermolov, military *attaché* at London; Mr. Samoilov, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Plançon, formerly Russian *chargé d'affaires* at Peking; and Mr. Naboukov, of the foreign office. Mr. Pokotilov, now Russian minister to China, will join the commission later. Besides the chief negotiators, the Japanese commission includes: Colonel Tachibana, the newly appointed military *attaché* at Washington; Mr. Adachi, first secretary of legation (unattached); Mr. Sato, of the foreign office; Mr. Yamaza, director of the Japanese bureau of political affairs; and Mr. H. W. Denison, the

American who has been legal adviser to the Japanese foreign office for the past quarter of a century. Just before sailing for this country, Mr. Witte granted an interview to a representative of the Associated Press, in which he declared that Russia is not for peace at any price. Mr. Witte said, further, that he feared the Japanese demands would be too severe for Russia's acceptance. As to the internal condition of the empire, this statesman denied most positively that Russia is on the verge of dissolution as a great power. In spite of the military reverses she has sustained, he said, the empire is not obliged to accept any conditions offered.

Russia has little resemblance to Western countries. To know Russia, to understand the soul of the Russian people, it is necessary that one should have been born here or lived many years in Russia. The customs, history, and mental psychology of the people are entirely different from those of Western nations, and Russia cannot be judged by Western standards. It is an immense country, composed of divers elements and interests, yet the Russian people are like a great family. . . . We are passing through an internal crisis which has been marked by many grave events, and which may have others still in store; but the crisis will pass, and in a few years Russia will again take her place as a preponderant power in the European concert.

*The New
Australian
Ministry.*

After the so-called Labor ministry in the Commonwealth of Australia had passed its much-discussed measure for the building of a new capital city, a year or so ago, Australian politics remained unsettled and full of change. In the first week of last month, on a vote moving an amendment to the address, the Reid free-trade ministry was forced to resign, owing principally to a combination of the Labor party and the "Deakinites," or Moderate Protectionists. Mr. Alfred Deakin, a man of character and unusual energy, has already been premier of the Commonwealth. His first cabinet, ending in April, 1904, was succeeded by a complete Labor cabinet, headed by Mr. Watson, the Labor leader. The Watson ministry was twice defeated, and finally gave way to the Reid administration. Mr. Deakin is prominent because of his views on the tariff, irrigation, and the question of a white Australia, and also because of his arguments for an Australian navy. The world will watch the new cabinet chiefly in regard to its course regarding Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's fiscal policy. Labor leader Watson declares that the Labor party will remain distinct from the Protectionist ranks, and will support Mr. Deakin on a definite programme, including a white Australia, preferential trade, the tariff commission's report, old-age pensions, an anti-trust programme, and the assumption of

the state debts by the Commonwealth. The revenue of the Commonwealth during the past financial year shows a decrease of more than three hundred thousand pounds from that of the preceding year, owing chiefly to the drought and consequent bad harvests. Australia's sister colony, New Zealand, however, shows great prosperity, and in a recent state paper by the Earl of Ranfurly, ex-governor-general, there are some interesting statistics about the progress of New Zealand. These show that bank deposits are increasing, that industry is thriving, and that in twelve years New Zealand has paid off its debts to outside investors.

*Renascence
of Arab
Civilization.*

Russia's waning prestige in Asia has permitted more than one Oriental people to raise its head and reassert its national consciousness. At Constantinople, the lessening fear of the Muscovite has suggested the increased oppression of the tribes subject to Turkish rule. Unfortunately for the Sultan, however, just as he has added to the weight of his hand there has burst out a long-smoldering Arab revolution which has already cost him several of the important towns in the peninsula. The Porte believes that British and German influence is behind the uprising. A recently published address of the Arab National party, however, indicates a real racial renascence of much significance among the Arabs. The Turks of the Arabian peninsula, it must be remembered, are in the great minority. Their government is oppressive, ineffective, and bloody. They are soon to be cast out by a most thorough revolution, this address says. The National Arab party announces its intention of separating completely from Turkey and founding an Arab empire composed of all the countries of Asiatic Arabs inclosed within natural boundaries, from the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates even to the Isthmus of Suez, and from the Mediterranean to the Sea of Oman. The plan contemplates a form of government under an Arabian Mussulman which "shall be a liberal, progressive, constitutional sultanate." It is asserted that "to accomplish this magnificent project it will not be necessary to shed any blood." What can the Turks in the Arab country, who number only five or six hundred, do in the face of twelve millions? This has all been thought out, and the Arabian people are ready. The address is signed by "The Supreme Committee of the National Arab Party." A number of economic and industrial projects are also contemplated by this party, including the reclamation of Syria and Mesopotamia by means of irrigation, making these ancient lands a second route to India.

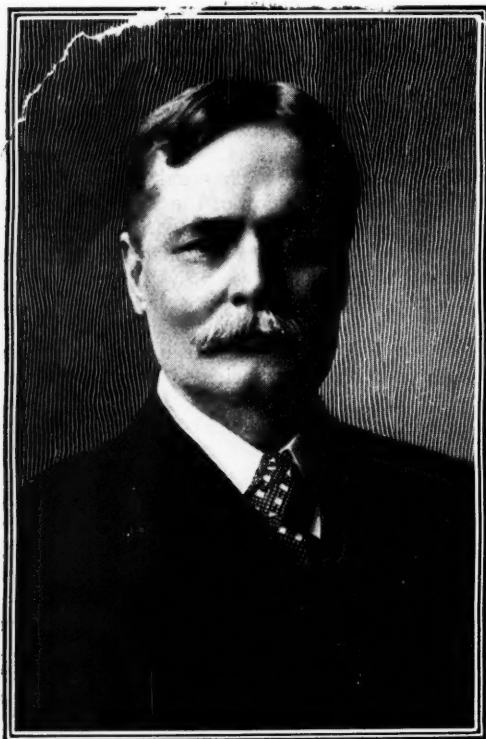
RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 19, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

June 22.—The Pennsylvania Supreme Court permanently enjoins the proposed consolidation of Pittsburg, Allegheny, and other municipalities.

June 23.—Gov. George R. Carter, of the Territory of Hawaii, resigns office.



HON. WILLIAM J. CALHOUN.

(Special commissioner to Venezuela.)

June 26.—President Roosevelt appoints former Senator McComas, of Maryland, a justice of the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia.

June 27.—Chief Engineer John F. Wallace, of the Panama Canal Commission, resigns his position.

June 28.—The New York State Senate adopts the report of its Judiciary Committee on the trial of Justice Hooker, of the State Supreme Court, and adjourns to July 10.

June 30.—John F. Stevens, of Chicago, is appointed chief engineer of the Panama Canal, to succeed John F. Wallace, resigned....Indictments are found at Milwaukee, Wis., against twenty-one county officials and business men, on charges of offering and accepting bribes.

July 1.—Five corporations and seventeen individuals engaged in the meat-packing industry are indicted by the federal grand jury in Chicago for alleged violation of the Sherman anti-trust law....Charles J. Bonaparte becomes Secretary of the Navy, succeeding Paul Morton....Israel W. Durham, the former Republican "boss" of Philadelphia, resigns the office of Pennsylvania State insurance commissioner.

July 2.—President Roosevelt issues a proclamation on the death of Secretary Hay....Charles E. Magoon, governor of the Panama Canal zone, is appointed United States minister to Panama.

July 4.—It is announced that the Secretary of Agriculture has caused twelve hundred suits to be begun against railroad companies for violation of the law regarding the transportation of live stock....United States Senator John H. Mitchell, of Oregon, is found guilty and recommended to leniency in the land-fraud cases before the federal court.

July 5.—Funeral ceremonies over the remains of Secretary Hay are held at Cleveland, the President, Vice-President, and members of the cabinet attending.

July 7.—The Kansas Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the law for the establishment of a State oil refinery....President Roosevelt announces the acceptance of the office of Secretary of State by Elihu Root, of New York....The case of Caleb Powers, four times tried for the murder of Governor Goebel, of Kentucky, is transferred to the federal court.

July 8.—The report of Secretary Wilson, of the United States Department of Agriculture, on the cotton report "leak" is made public; Assistant Statistician Edwin S. Holmes is dismissed from the service.

July 10.—The trial of Justice Warren B. Hooker by the New York Legislature is begun.

July 11.—William J. Calhoun, of Illinois, is appointed by President Roosevelt a special commissioner to Venezuela.

July 18.—John Hyde, chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Agriculture at Washington, resigns office.

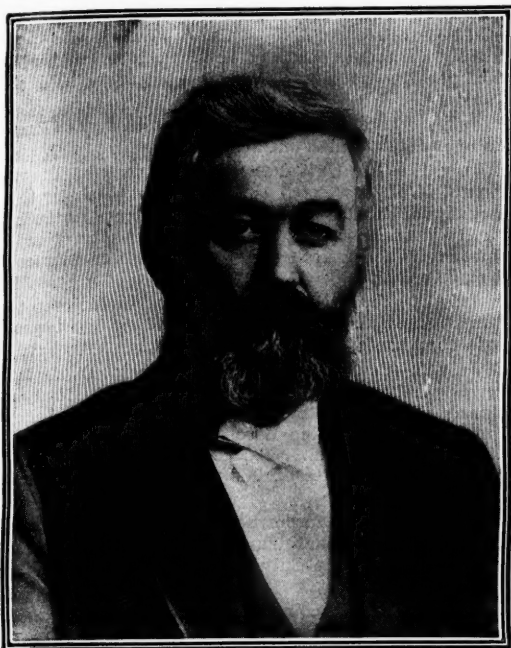
July 19.—Elihu Root, of New York, takes the oath of office as Secretary of State.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

June 21.—The Swedish Riksdag is opened by King Oscar, who sanctions the recommendation of the Swedish Government to negotiate with the Norwegian Sorthing for the peaceful dissolution of the union.... A vote of want of confidence in the new Hungarian cabinet is carried both in the upper chamber and in the Diet.

June 22.—The Swedish Riksdag decides to refer the government's proposals of settlement with Norway to a special committee of both chambers....The Czar of Russia appoints Grand Duke Nicholas president of the Council of National Defense.

June 23.—The Russian minister of the interior issues



DR. NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER.

(New president of the National Educational Association.)

a circular asserting that the Czar's language to the zemstvo delegates is incorrectly interpreted....The new Liberal Spanish ministry, under the premiership of Signor Montero Rios, is sworn in....The town of Lódz, in Poland, is in a state of revolt; troops kill 50 persons and wound 200....Premier Ramstedt, of Sweden, tenders his resignation, but the King and the cabinet request its withdrawal.

June 24.—M. Ralli forms a new cabinet in Greece.

June 25.—The French Chamber practically finishes the discussion of the separation bill.

June 26.—The British House of Commons rejects a vote of censure of the Balfour ministry on the army stores scandal....The advisers of Prince George of Crete tender their resignation, which is not accepted.

June 27.—The Swedish Riksdag elects committees to consider the cabinet's proposals to treat with Norway....The Czar of Russia issues a ukase investing the governor-general of Warsaw with supreme military power.

June 28.—The crew of the Russian battleship *Kniaz Potemkin*, of the Black Sea squadron, mutinies at sea, killing the principal officers, seizing the ship, and putting into Odessa harbor, where the entire populace is in revolt....The Cuban House of Representatives passes the Rice bill, opening the Havana market to American products....The Australian Commonwealth Parliament is opened at Melbourne.

June 29.—The Russian rebel battleship shells the city of Odessa; the water-front is gutted, and several vessels are burned; 1,000 persons are believed to have been killed in street fighting; sailors at Libau mutiny, at-

tack the government stores, and fire into officers' quarters.

July 2.—The Russian Black Sea squadron, having failed to capture or sink the rebel battleship at Odessa, returns to Sebastopol, where the ships are disarmed, the engines ungear, and the crews sent ashore.

July 3.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 341 to 233, passes the bill for the separation of Church and State.

July 4.—The lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath rejects the motion looking to the separation of Austria and Hungary....Orders for the mobilization of the Swedish army are issued.

July 5.—A new ministry, headed by Alfred Deakin, takes office in the Australian Commonwealth.

July 8.—The rebel Russian battleship and the torpedo boat surrender to the Roumanian authorities at Kustenji.

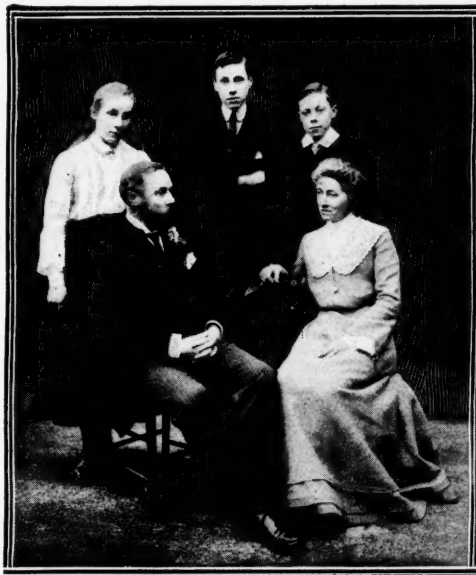
July 10.—In the British House of Lords, Field Marshal Lord Roberts declares the British army inadequate and totally unfit for war.

July 11.—There is further fighting at Warsaw between the strikers and the troops, twenty persons being killed or wounded....Major-General Count Shuvalov, prefect of police at Moscow, is assassinated while receiving petitions.

July 13.—In the British House of Commons, Premier Balfour declares himself opposed to conscription for filling the ranks of the army.

July 17.—Tramway and underground railroad lines in London to cost \$120,000,000 are proposed in the report of the royal commission appointed to investigate the problem.

July 18.—The Hungarian opposition issues a mani-



THE RIGHT HON. J. W. LOWTHER.

(New Speaker of the British House of Commons, and his family.)

festos urging the people to refuse to obey all orders of the present government.

July 19.—The congress of Russian zemstvos meets at Moscow.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

June 21.—Premier Rouvier, of France, asks Germany to explain her intentions regarding Morocco.... Russia notifies Germany of her intention to mobilize troops in the frontier districts.... The Venezuelan Government's arrangement for the settlement of its external debt is approved by Venezuelan bondholders in London.

June 25.—President Roosevelt directs that Chinamen of the exempt classes under the exclusion laws be treated as citizens of most favored nations.

June 26.—President Roosevelt receives notice from Russia and Japan that the peace plenipotentiaries will meet at Washington within the first ten days of August (see page 211).

June 27.—The German reply to the French note on Morocco is delivered by Prince Radolin to Premier Rouvier.

June 30.—Ex-Ambassador Porter is appointed special United States commissioner to receive the remains of Paul Jones from the French Government.... Sweden proclaims the harbors of Stockholm, Karlskrona, Gothenberg, and Farsund war ports, and excludes all foreign warships.

July 1.—The Chinese Government orders the viceroys and provincial governors to put an end to anti-American agitation.

July 6.—The Emperor of Japan sends his peace plenipotentiaries a farewell greeting urging the need of lasting peace.

July 8.—France accepts Germany's terms and will take part in the Moroccan conference to be held at Tangier.

July 9.—The rebel battleship is turned over to Russia by the Roumanian authorities.

July 10.—The United States navy yard at Portsmouth, N. H., is selected as a convenient place for the meetings of the Russo-Japanese peace plenipotentiaries.... Russia asks Roumania for the surrender of mutineers.... The Franco-German agreement on Morocco is made public.

July 11.—France sends a messenger to Morocco to formally notify the Sultan of her acceptance of the proposal for a conference.

July 13.—Count Sergius Witte is appointed Russian peace plenipotentiary in place of M. Muraviev, resigned, the other plenipotentiaries being Ambassador Rosen, for Russia, and Baron Komura and Minister Takahira, for Japan.... Baron Rosen, the new Russian ambassador, presents his credentials to President Roosevelt.

July 18.—Lord Lansdowne says that the powers will insist on international financial control in Macedonia, notwithstanding the Sultan's refusal to agree to the plan.

July 19.—A joint committee of the Swedish Riksdag begins work on a bill to settle the dispute with Norway.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

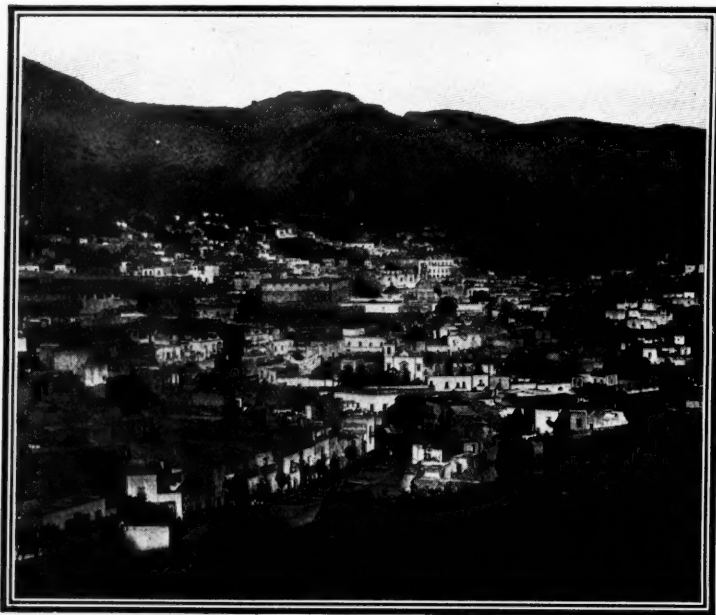
June 23.—Count Lamsdorff hands to Sir C. Hardinge instructions to the captains of Russian cruisers to abstain from sinking neutral ships, these orders to be delivered by British warships. The *Dnieper* is ordered to furnish a report on the sinking of the *St. Kilda*.

June 24.—The *Dnieper* arrives at Jibuti, having on board the crew of the *St. Kilda*.... News arrives that the Russian cruiser *Terek* sank the British steamer *Ikhona* on June 5, one hundred and fifty miles north of Hongkong.... The sunken Russian cruiser *Bayan* is floated at Port Arthur.... The Japanese defeat the Russians northwest of Nan-shan-chen-tse.

June 27.—A Singapore telegram gives details regarding the sinking of the *Ikhona* by the *Terek*.

June 30.—The Russian cruiser *Terek*, reported to have sunk British and Danish steamships, is interned at Batavia, Java.

July 8.—A Japanese expedition takes possession of the island of Saghalien, used by Russia as a penal settlement, after a slight engagement; the



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A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE CITY OF GUANAJUATO, MEXICO.

A great part of this town of 70,000 people was swept away by a flood on July 1, 1905.)

Russian commander blows up the coast-defense guns and burns the government buildings before retiring.

July 10.—The Russians burn Korsakovsk, the capital of Saghalien, and retreat north.

July 11.—Admiral Kataoka reports that Cape Noto, on Saghalien, has been occupied by the Japanese after a short bombardment.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

June 21.—The new eighteen-hour train of the New York Central Railroad from Chicago to New York is wrecked by an open switch and destroyed by fire at Mentor, Ohio; 21 lives are lost, and many are injured.

June 22.—The centenary of the birth of Mazzini is celebrated throughout Italy.

June 28.—At the commencement of Yale University, a gift of \$1,000,000 from John D. Rockefeller, and others aggregating an additional \$1,000,000, are announced.... The Ryan stock trustees of the Equitable Society name nine new directors.

June 29.—The New York State Insurance Department begins an investigation of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York, at the request of its own officers.

June 30.—John D. Rockefeller gives \$10,000,000 to the General Education Board.

July 1.—A flood at Guanajuato, Mexico, causes the loss of hundreds of lives and property to the value of \$1,000,000.

July 2.—The Philadelphia police raid gambling-houses and disorderly resorts, arresting about two thousand persons.

July 3.—The National Educational Association begins its meeting at Asbury Park, N. J.

July 4.—A flood visits Pierre, S. D., depriving half the people of their homes and doing much damage in the surrounding country.... An heroic bronze statue of President McKinley is unveiled at Chicago.

July 5.—The International Christian Endeavor Convention opens at Baltimore, Md., and the convention of the Epworth League at Denver, Colo.

July 6.—The remains of John Paul Jones are formally received by United States officials at Paris.

July 7.—President Roosevelt addresses 60,000 persons at the National Educational Association convention at Asbury Park, N. J.

July 8.—The United States squadron bearing the remains of John Paul Jones sails from Cherbourg for Annapolis.

July 9.—The International Socialist Congress opens at Constance, but adjourns to a Swiss town, the Baden government having forbidden speeches by foreign delegates.

July 11.—More than one hundred miners are killed by an explosion in the pits of the United National Colliers Company, at Wattstown, Wales.

July 18.—The temperature rises to 96 degrees in New York City; 22 deaths and more than 200 hundred prostrations result from the heat.

July 19.—More than 75 deaths from the heat are reported in New York City.

OBITUARY.

June 21.—John R. Bennett, a noted New York patent lawyer, 54.

June 22.—Ex-Gov. Francis R. Lubbock, of Texas, the last of the war governors, 90.... Gen. Charles William Darling, of Utica, N. Y., 75.

June 23.—Rev. Samuel M. Woodbridge, D.D., for many years dean of New Brunswick Theological Seminary, 86.... Rev. Orello Cone, D.D., professor of theology at St. Lawrence University, 66.

June 24.—Joseph Miller, inventor, 95.

June 26.—George E. Macklin, general manager of the Pressed Steel Car Company, 42.

June 27.—Graeme Stewart, a leading citizen of Chicago, 52.

June 28.—Admiral Sir Baldwin Walker, 81.... Surgeon-General Cunningham, C.S.L., M.D., LL.D., 76.

June 29.—Rear-Admiral Louis J. Allen, U.S.N. (retired), 65.

June 30.—Gen. Hugh B. Ewing, formerly minister to Holland, 85.

July 1.—John Hay, Secretary of State of the United States, 67 (see pages 166-176).

July 2.—Prof. George Edward Day, of Yale University, 72.... Prof. Marcus Willson, author of popular text-books, 91.

July 4.—Prof. Jean Jacques Elisée Réclus, the well-known French geographer, 75.

July 5.—Gen. Amasa Cobb, of Nebraska, 82.

July 7.—Ex-United States Senator Wilbur F. Sanders, of Montana, 71.... Prof. Hermann Nothnagel, the well-known clinical authority of Vienna, 64.

July 8.—Walter Kittredge, composer of "Tenting on the Old Camp Ground" and other war songs, 71.... T. Henry Randall, a well-known New York architect.

July 9.—Arthur Latham Perry, for many years a professor in Williams College, 75.

July 10.—Henry M. Mendell, of Milwaukee, Wis., for many years president of the North American Sängerbund, 66.... Albert Edward Lancaster, literary and dramatic critic of the New York *Evening Telegram*, 64.

July 13.—Rev. Charles Pearson, D.D., formerly professor of literature at Northwestern University, 60.... Theodore C. Weeks, a well-known Boston banker, 65.... Benjamin Webb Williams, a pioneer in conducting lecturing tours, 91.

July 15.—Brig-Gen. Napoleon J. T. Dana, U.S.A. (retired), said to have been the oldest West Point graduate, 83.... Mrs. Laura Hyde Stedman, wife of Edmund Clarence Stedman, 70.... The Marquis Villaverde, former premier of Spain.

July 16.—Gen. W. W. Blackmar, commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 64.

July 17.—Gen. Francis Effington Pinto, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 82.... Mrs. Caroline Elizabeth Monell, a granddaughter of John Adams, second President of the United States, 90.

July 18.—Joseph E. Bender, chief of the Indian division of the Department of the Interior, 69.

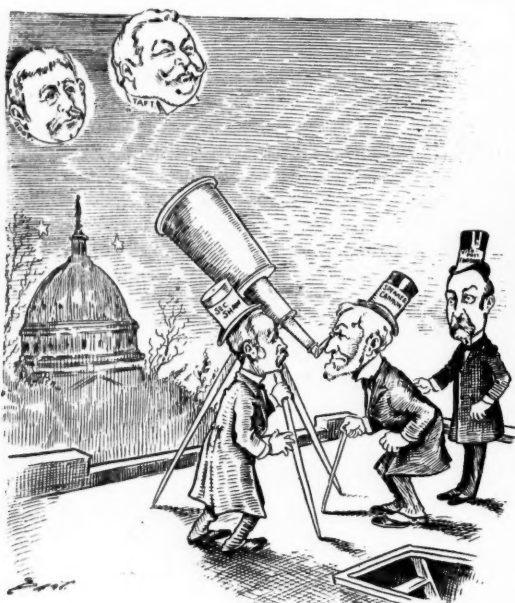
July 19.—Earl Cowper, formerly Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, 71.

SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



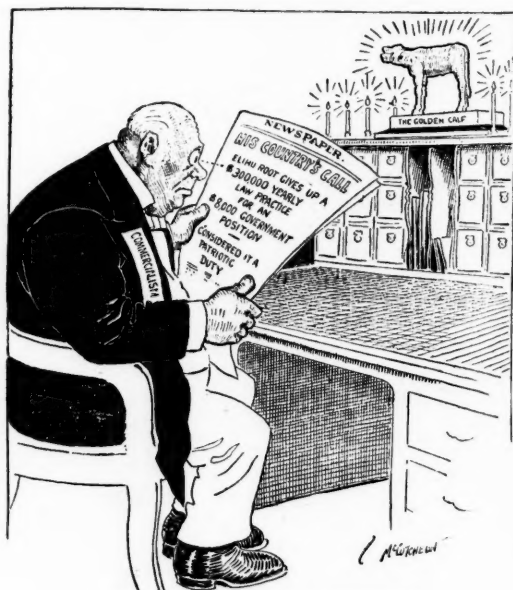
GETTING THE WARM END OF IT.—From the *Herald* (New York).

It is reported that Mr. Root, as Secretary of State, will take charge of the Panama Canal while Secretary Taft is off on a long voyage to the Philippines.



THE POLITICAL STAR-GAZERS.

THE ANXIOUS OBSERVERS: "Do we see double, or are there two of them now?"—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



SOMETHING HE CANNOT COMPREHEND.

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

The men who measure everything by the money standard do not see why Mr. Root gives up an income of \$30,000 a year to become Secretary of State at a salary of \$8,000.



UNCLE SAM MOURNS FOR JOHN HAY.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



"Yon rising moon that looks for us again—
How oft hereafter will she wax and wane;
How oft hereafter rising look for us
Through this same garden—and for one in vain!"

From the *Herald* (Boston).



WAR IS HELPFUL TO THE JAPANESE BOND MARKET.
From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT HOUSECLEANING AGAIN.
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



LAWSON HAS LOST HIS VOICE.

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER: "Now, if Ida would just get writer's cramp, I might get a little much-needed rest."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE SPIRIT OF THE SEA.

"And so you bear him home. . . . And who shall say that the *Bonhomme Richard*, the ship he loved, does not, too, bear him in spirit?"—General Porter, on surrendering the body of John Paul Jones.—From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



"SAY, BUT THE KID'S LEARNING!"

CHINA: "Uncle."

U. S.: "Well?"

CHINA: "I can spell boycott!"

From the *Herald* (Boston).



"WHEW!"

The hot wave in Philadelphia shows no sign of abating.
From the *North-American* (Philadelphia).



RUSSIA ON THE ANXIOUS SEAT.
From the *Post* (Washington).



REVOLUTION LET LOOSE IN RUSSIA.
From the *World* (New York).



JOHN BULL (to Japan): "Soak him once more, and close the eye looking in this direction."
From the *Journal* (Detroit).

JOHN HAY: AN AMERICAN GENTLEMAN.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

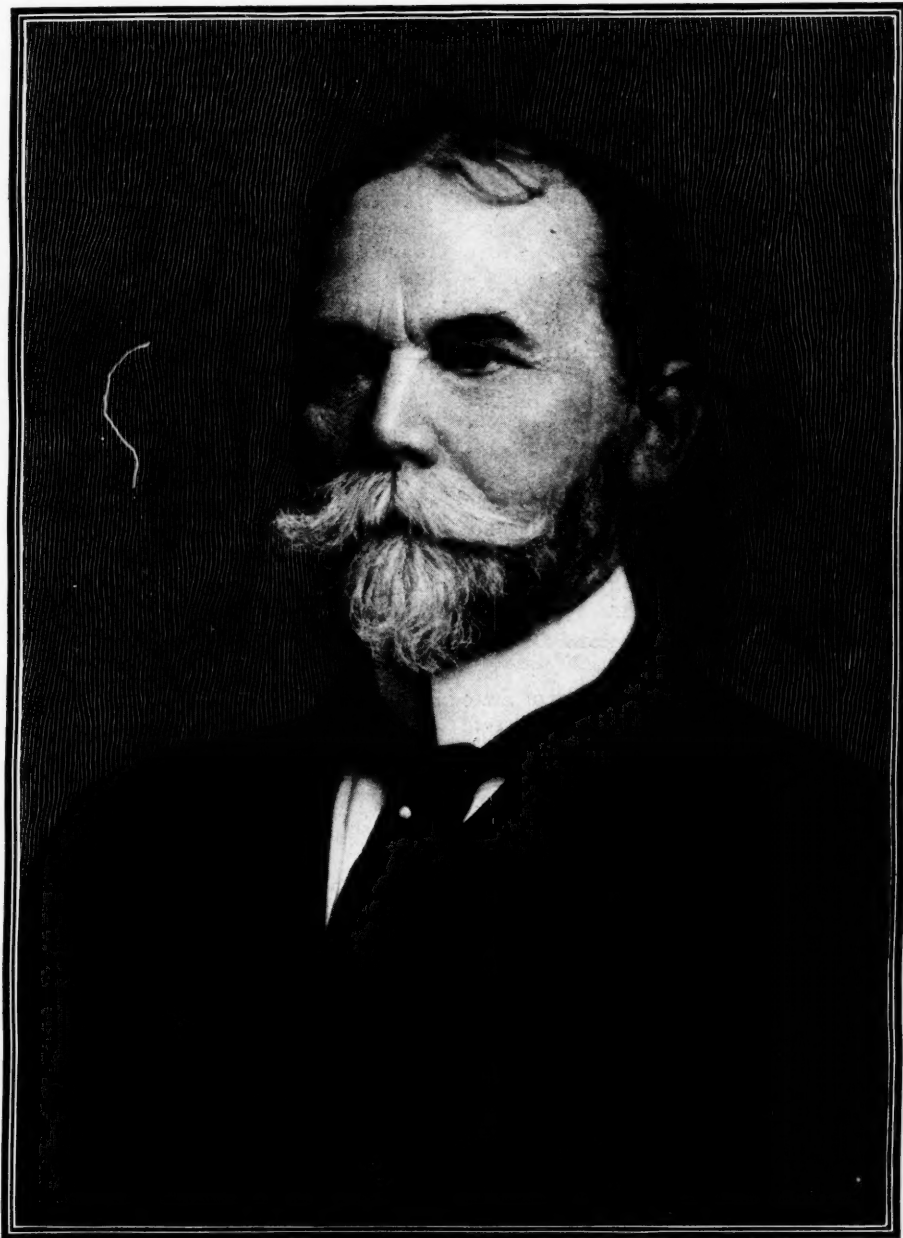
PERHAPS the best and truest thing that can be said of John Hay the man is that every one who had the good fortune to get really close to him loved him. His was one of those rare natures that win, without conscious effort, the deep and abiding affection of all who draw near. John Hay's "sweetness and light," of which Secretary Taft spoke so feelingly and fittingly the day after the death of the great Secretary of State, were not reserved for his family, nor for his equals in station, but were shed generously and habitually upon all, high or low, who came in contact with him. Three Presidents of the United States basked in their warm rays and felt spiritually refreshed; most of the notable Americans of the last fifteen years fell under their charm; scores of eminent diplomatists have been lured by them into passing forgetfulness of professional thrust and parry and have lingered within the spell of delight. But so it was also with the humblest. Mr. Hay's official subordinates loved the man even more than they respected and admired the superior. His household servants gave him, not only their service, but their hearts. Doubtless it is true that few men are heroes to their valets, but John Hay's skillful Swedish *masseur*, after years of attention to the high and mighty of this and other national capitals, declared, "Mr. Hay is the finest gentleman I ever knew." Newspaper men, at Hay's elbow night and day, in hours of stress, of trial, of disappointment, of the most delicate relations and situations, of triumph and success,—catching all the moods and reactions of a highly sensitive nature amid the vicissitudes of a strenuous career,—are profound in their admiration for his serenity, his dignity, his kindly helpfulness, his courtesy, his wit and humor. Often they were conscious that they tried his patience to the full, but the "sweetness and light" never failed. Never hero-worshippers, ever inclined to cynicism, these newspaper writers at Washington, a dozen or so of whom have been by Hay's side almost daily during the last six or seven years, felt his death as something more than the passing away of a great diplomatist and public servant; to them it came as a personal grief. As one of these writers for the press who year after year were honored with Mr. Hay's confidence, it is in my heart to

say: He was like father, brother, philosopher, guide, and friend rolled into one.

HOW HE WON RECOGNITION.

When Mr. Hay became Secretary of State, nearly seven years ago, the American people did not know him. He had not yet made a deep impress upon the national consciousness. He was regarded almost with suspicion; there was a widespread impression that the new Secretary was simply a man of wealth who had won preferment by making liberal subscriptions to the campaign funds of his party; that he had been rewarded beyond his deserts by President McKinley with the English ambassadorship; that as envoy to the court of St. James he had become an Anglomaniac, an aristocrat, and a lover of aristocracy; that he was exclusive, un-American, and of doubtful fitness for so great a task. In the light of the facts and subsequent events it seems strange that any considerable number of intelligent persons could have entertained this view, or anything like it. But they did. Mr. Hay had a public to win. Consciously or unconsciously, he went about doing it. He did it, not with any posing or theatricals, not with the slightest bid for popularity by any of the devices so well known to cheaper men, but with conscientious work at his desk. Gradually it dawned upon the American people that they had a big man in the State Department. His work told. Little by little suspicions were removed and faith won. The public knew little of the man himself,—he never had the knack of attracting the popular eye to his personality,—but it knew of his achievements. By the time President McKinley fell at Buffalo, Mr. Hay had come into his own. He had found his place. He had won the hearts of the American people, as he had long before won the affections of all who really knew him. He had become one of the most popular, most trusted, of American public men.

Not long before his death, in conversation with the writer, Mr. McKinley paid a tribute to his Secretary of State which is worthy of preservation in the records. "To my mind," said the President, "John Hay is the fairest flower of our civilization. Cultured, wealthy, with a love of travel, of leisure, of scholarly pursuits, with



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HON. JOHN HAY, SECRETARY OF STATE

(Born, October 8, 1838; died, July 1, 1905.)

money enough to go where he likes and do what he likes, he is yet patriotic enough to give his great talents to his country."

HIS DEVOTION TO DUTY.

When Mr. McKinley fell, Mr. Hay had no other expectation than that he would be released from official cares. He wished it to be so. He wanted to travel, to write. He had some literary plans which recent busy years had never given him the opportunity to carry out. Great was his surprise when the new President, on arriving at the national capital from Buffalo, drove straight to Mr. Hay's house and begged the Secretary to retain his office. Mr. Roosevelt never regretted that act. More than once, later, he found it necessary to implore Mr. Hay to remain at his post, and more than once Mr. Hay yielded. It is well known at Washington that Mr. Hay ardently wished to seek rest and recreation in travel and the society of his friends and his well-loved books. Had he done so,—had he put duty behind him and consulted only his personal inclination and comfort,—it is more than probable that he would be alive and well to-day. It was of Jim Bludso that Mr. Hay himself wrote in his college days:

"And Christ ain't a-going to be too hard
On a man that died for men."

Mr. Hay held the office of Secretary of State longer than any of his predecessors. It is safe to say that he did more work in that post than any other man had ever done,—made more of it. Other famous Secretaries were famous before they took the office; Mr. Hay's life-work was there; there he made his reputation. He had no other political ambition. He had never cared for politics from the view-point of personal participation. Even the Presidency was not alluring to him,—he never aspired to it. If McKinley had died eight months earlier, Mr. Hay would have become President. He was ever mindful of the responsibility which the fates might thrust upon him. Though he dreaded the possibility of being called to the higher office, he held it to be his duty to govern himself according to the decree of chance and the laws of his country. Hence, he was careful to remain nearly always in Washington while the President was away on trips. It was impossible for him, with his ideas of duty, to make a foreign voyage till the country should secure a constitutional Vice-President.

RELATIONS WITH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

Between President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay there was a close and intimate friendship. Each was sincerely fond of the other,

though their characters differed so widely. Mr. Roosevelt may have depended more upon the judgment of a Root or a Taft or a Knox in all matters not of international bearing, but no other member of his cabinet enjoyed more of the President's personal affection than Mr. Hay. Each was the complement of the other, each a constant source of delight to his friend. Roosevelt's buoyant, almost boyish, high spirits and rapid-fire comment upon men and matters and Hay's quiet, incisive, dry humor and facility for making pertinent quotations from the whole range of literature and anecdote formed a combination which gave unalloyed pleasure to both. It was President Roosevelt's habit to walk to church every Sunday afternoon, in Washington, and on his way home to stop at the house of Secretary Hay, on Lafayette Square, just opposite the White House, for a chat of an hour or two. He rarely went to the houses of other cabinet officers, but to miss the Sunday afternoon visit with John Hay, the President has confessed, was a distinct deprivation. "Mr. Hay was the most charming man and delightful companion I have ever known," said the President, a day or two ago, to a friend. "Those Sunday talks of ours nearly always ended in a discussion of Abraham Lincoln."

HIS EARLIER CAREER.

Mr. Hay had the rare distinction of working side by side with three of our great Presidents. The salient facts of his career are well known. He was born in 1838, at Salem, Ind. His father was a physician whose ancestors had been Scottish,—fighting men in the Revolution and settlers in Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, and Illinois. John Hay, a fourth son, was graduated from Brown University in 1858, taking high rank in English composition, having already attracted much attention with his poems "Jim Bludso," "Little Breeches," and others. For three years he studied law at Springfield, Ill., in the office of an uncle, Malcolm Hay, an intimate friend of Abraham Lincoln, and was admitted to the bar. When Mr. Lincoln entered the White House he took Hay with him as one of his secretaries. For more than four years the relations between the President and the young man were of the most intimate character, almost those of father and son. For some months Hay served in the army on staff duty, and won the title of colonel, which stuck to him throughout his career. After Lincoln's death, he entered the diplomatic service, and was successively secretary of legation at Paris, Madrid, and Vienna. For five years he was an editorial writer on the *New York Tribune*. In 1874 he married a daughter

of Amasa Stone, of Cleveland, who had been one of Mr. Lincoln's staunch and rugged friends. For two years he was Assistant Secretary of State, in the Hayes administration. Mr. and Mrs. Hay built a fine house in Washington and reared their children there. Their home was a social center, but Mr. Hay did not reënter the public service till President McKinley made him ambassador to England in 1897. In September, the next year, he was appointed Secretary of State.

TRUSTED BY THREE PRESIDENTS.

There is no doubt that the character of Lincoln left its impress upon his young associate. Mr. Hay's deep but silent love for his country was like his first master's. So was his fondness for anecdote, for jest, for quaint sayings. The right-hand man of three Presidents, Mr. Hay was loyal to each in turn. But the Liberator was his first love. Once I made bold to ask Mr. Hay for his estimate of the three chief magistrates he had known so intimately.

"Experience has taught me the unwisdom of personal comparisons," he replied, meditatively. And after a pause he added:

"But Abraham Lincoln was the greatest man I have ever known or shall ever know."

Loyalty was an essential, almost a predominant, quality of Mr. Hay's character. Even with his most intimate friends he rarely used the first personal pronoun in speaking of his work. It was almost invariably "The President has done thus," or "The President's policy is to do so-and-so." Once in a great while, during his absence or illness, some action might be taken by the President's order of which, at heart, Mr. Hay did not approve. But one could never learn of his disapproval from Mr. Hay's lips. With right hearty loyalty and most excellent dissimulation, if needs be, he defended, explained, or even took responsibility upon himself. He was loyal to his associates and subordinates, too. If one did a good piece of work, the Secretary praised it. If one blundered, he kept his lips closed to all outsiders; it was the department's mistake, not the individual's. He was too kind of heart to be a first-class executive. Rather than dismiss an incompetent he would invent excuses for him, and when worse came to worst secure him a transfer to some other post.

"A MODEST GREAT MAN."

Mr. Hay was as modest a great man as nature ever made. Because of his instinctive disinclination to speak of himself, he was rarely reminiscent, and then only by dint of thrusting his own personality into the background.

Mr. Hay's modesty was such an essential part of his character that in cabinet meetings he never took part in discussions unless international affairs were under consideration. The same quality led him to shrink from appearance as a speaker in public. On the rare occasions when he could be induced to make an address he spent weeks of fretful, nervous apprehension and preparation, wishing with all his heart he were well out of it, yet determined to go through with it and to do his best. When he did speak, it was with the confidence and poise of the man who is his own master; and the country usually had a new classic to add to its political and biographical literature, as in his noteworthy oration on McKinley, delivered in the Capitol at Washington, and his still finer review of the Republican party's first half-century, delivered last year.

HIS CONTEMPT FOR LIARS.

Though his characteristic mental attitude was that of placidity and serenity, he never degenerated to the level of the cynic. He was never the man who concludes that nothing matters—never the disciple of Talleyrand who took to his heart the maxim, "Above all, no zeal." Mr. Hay's modesty would not permit him to make a parade of his earnestness or sound his zeal from the housetops; but he was zealous and earnest as to all vital things, just the same. He had a fine scorn for all that is petty, mean, contemptible. He detested all unnecessary and wanton falsehood. For the sort of diplomacy that rests essentially upon tergiversation he had a most hearty contempt. One of his sayings is famous in the diplomatic world. It was used of a certain titled European, not now a member of the corps at Washington.

"When the count comes to talk to me," said Mr. Hay, "I do not use my wits trying to ascertain whether or not the man is lying. I know he is lying. What I try to find out is why he is telling that particular lie."

MR. HAY AND THE SENATE.

It was not all sweetness with Mr. Hay. He could turn sour enough when his sensibilities were touched. They were rarely touched through his personal relations or the personal equation in any form, direct or indirect. But they could be quickly roused on the score of public duty. He despised men who juggle with the public interests to serve their own petty and selfish political purposes,—as, for instance, Senators who emasculate and burke a treaty, designed for the common good of all the people, in the interests of their States, or even of certain industries in their States, for the sake of strengthening

their political status at home and improving their prospects for reelection. At times, his denunciation of such men was fierce. The bitterest excoriation of well-known Senators by name I ever heard from the lips of mortal man came from John Hay's tongue when with righteous indignation he spoke of their discreditable thrusts at the life of a most meritorious treaty. Mr. Hay did not, as a rule, get on well with the Senate. He was working for the country at large; too many Senators were working simply for themselves. There were Senators who were determined to drive him into private life. They could not have succeeded so long as Mr. Hay kept his health and Mr. Roosevelt was still in the White House.

HIS DAILY PROGRAMME.

Mr. Hay was a wide reader. Of late years he spent only the mornings at his desk in the State Department. At 1 o'clock he walked across the park to his home, carrying a well-stuffed portfolio of dispatches and memoranda. His best work he did at home, in the afternoons. Before dinner, he almost invariably took a stroll with his chum of a lifetime, Henry Adams, the historian, whose house stands next to Mr. Hay's, the two being so alike and so well blended, like the natures and tastes of their owners, that they appear the same structure. On these walks Mr. Hay invariably wore a top hat and a frock coat. He was punctilious in all matters of dress and deportment. Returning from his walk, which till recently was that of a man in robust health, with the swing of strength in the stride, he donned evening clothes for dinner. He cared little for society, and since the death of his elder and exceedingly promising son Adelbert, through an accident at New Haven, Mr. and Mrs. Hay eschewed society almost entirely, save for the formal functions incident to Mr. Hay's official station. Callers at Mr. Hay's home in the evenings usually found him ensconced in a snug corner of his library, book in hand. He read much, and marveled somewhat enviously because President Roosevelt, with more work to do, ten times as many people to see, and much more time spent in the open air, could read twice as much as he.

Far from being the aristocrat many believed him, Mr. Hay was distinctively democratic. He was one of the most accessible of Secretaries of State. It was easier to get audience with him than with many of his subordinates. Foreigners visiting the American capital were astonished at the simple code which ruled the office of the great American diplomatist,—his open door, his readiness to receive and listen.

WAS HE PRO-BRITISH AND ANTI-RUSSIAN?

It has long been suspected of Mr. Hay that he was pro-British and anti-Russian. There was ground for the suspicion, so far as his personal feelings were concerned. He had faith in English character, English justice, English institutions. He sought no alliance, but he did seek a closer understanding, a drawing together of the two English-speaking peoples which should make war between them an utter impossibility. Despite criticism, and even bitter attacks, he held to his task; and he lived long enough to see the work done,—to see Anglo-American friendship so firmly knitted that nothing less than an earthquake would suffice to upset it. If Mr. Hay had done nothing else, this one achievement would redound to his fame,—he more than any other one man swept away the foolish cult which till recently made it necessary for an ambitious American politician to proclaim his hostility to England.

As for Russia, Mr. Hay doubted Russian good faith in international relations on general principles. Even more he doubted Russian racial efficiency. He was not surprised at the outcome of the war between Russia and Japan. Indeed, he foresaw it all clearer than any other man with whom I have come in contact. Officially, Mr. Hay maintained a correct attitude as between the combatants; but there was no mistaking the direction of his private sympathies. They oozed out, careful as he was of the proprieties. Perhaps his aptitude for quotation as a convenient expression of opinion at delicate moments, and his love for the vivid and imaginative in literature, never had better illustration than on the occasion of the firing upon the trawlers in the North Sea by Rozhdestvenski's fleet. I asked Mr. Hay what he thought of it. For answer, he inquired if I remembered Kipling's lines from "The Destroyers," and himself quoted them:

"Panic that shells the drifting spar—
Loud waste with none to check;
Mad fear that rakes a scornful star
Or sweeps a consort's deck."

The answer was all-sufficient. And when I looked to the future, and inquired what, in the Secretary's opinion, would be the fate of the Russian fleet in the far East, Mr. Hay's reply was characteristic:

"The true poet is also a prophet; and Kipling is a true poet."

MR. HAY AS AN AUTHOR.

The critics agree that if John Hay had kept to the paths of literature he would have made

fame for himself with his pen. It is too much to say that he was a literary genius; it is perfectly true that he gave promise of the possession of genius of the first magnitude. His best-known poems of the Bret Harte order were composed while he was still at college. His "Castilian Days," a study of Spain, took higher rank. Of all his poems, "The Stirrup Cup," recently reprinted throughout the world with added pathos on account of the death of the writer, was the best. There is little doubt that Mr. Hay was the author of that popular and in some respects striking novel of American life, "The Bread-winners," though he would never acknowledge it. I have myself quizzed him about it, and invariably received evasive replies. To one friend who sent him a note pinning the authorship upon him by the process of exclusion Mr. Hay replied, characteristically: "Run the rascal down. Let no guilty man escape." And Mr. Hay underscored the concluding sentence. A labor of love and of notably good workmanship was Mr. Hay's collaboration with Mr. Nicolay in "The Life of Lincoln." As an editorial writer on the New York *Tribune*, Mr. Hay was in a field well

adapted to his skill, and Mr. Greeley once said that though he had read a million editorials, one of John Hay's was the best he ever saw.

Mr. Hay was neither ashamed nor proud of his literary efforts. He judged them as harshly as any critic; but he knew their worth, and their promise, too. Throughout his life he had the feeling that if opportunity were to present itself,—the leisure and the inspiration,—he could do something really worth while.

In John Hay "sweetness and light" and strength and modesty were strangely blended with wit and humor and taste and dignity. There were moods, too. Of late years he suffered spells of spiritual depression, inexplicable, and mastered only by his strong will. He joked of what he thought, though no one else discovered, were evidences of failing powers. And one of his favorite replies to friends who asked after his health was, "I am suffering from an incurable disease." After the inquirer had expressed his doubt and sympathy in sufficient and proper solemnity, Mr. Hay explained, "And the disease is old age." His friends smiled at the quip then. But it is a jest no more.

MR. HAY'S WORK IN DIPLOMACY.

BY JOHN BASSETT MOORE.

(Professor of International Law and Diplomacy at Columbia University; formerly Assistant Secretary of State.)

NO man will ever make a great diplomatist, any more than a great scientist, a great soldier, or a great orator, solely by reason of training. Self-possession, quickness and depth of understanding, and shrewd and balanced judgment, are qualities that cannot be created out of elements which are by nature defective. Nevertheless, education and experience are as essential to the development of the highest professional efficiency in the man of large, as in the man of small, capacity.

In assuming the office of Secretary of State, Mr. Hay had the inestimable advantage of practical familiarity with all the duties of the position,—technical, political, and social. His close personal association with the head of the national administration during the Civil War had given him an intimate knowledge of how public affairs are conducted, together with a wide acquaintance with men and breadth of view. And it is not strange that, with a mind so ardent and acquisitive as his and an imagination so active, his intimate acquaintance with domestic affairs should have inspired him with a desire for ser-

vice abroad. On March 22, 1865, he was commissioned as secretary of legation at Paris. He resigned the post in the spring of 1867, only to be appointed to a similar position at Vienna; and in June, 1869, he was transferred to Madrid, where he remained till the autumn of 1870. In the discharge of his secretarial duties, he was from time to time called upon to act as *chargé d'affaires ad interim*, thus becoming familiar with the responsibilities of the head of the mission. From 1879 till 1881, he served as Assistant Secretary of State, under Mr. Evarts. In this position he had little opportunity to gain distinction, since the time was a peculiarly quiet and uneventful one in the history of our foreign affairs. In 1881, however, he was chosen to represent the United States at the International Sanitary Conference, and was honored with the presidency of that body.

THE LONDON EMBASSY.

When, in 1897, after the inauguration of President McKinley, Mr. Hay was sent as ambassador to London, he was not as a stranger

going to a strange land. Not only his frequent journeys abroad, but also his fortunate position in the social life of Washington, had brought him into contact with many of England's foremost men both in politics and in letters. It is not strange that his reception as ambassador was cordial; and he constantly increased the circle of his friends. He also won the confidence of his government at home, as well as esteem abroad, by his unfailing tact and good judgment on all occasions. This was especially the case during the many confidential interchanges of opinion and suggestion that came from all quarters during the war with Spain. At London, as one of the few great centers of the world's diplomatic activity, it was important that the American ambassador should be both alert and wise. Mr. Hay was both; and in the autumn of 1898, when Judge Day resigned the Secretaryship of State in order to go to Paris as head of the peace commission, President McKinley, with that rare discernment which so often characterized his acts, called him to the vacant post, in which he was soon to achieve world-wide renown.

ISSUES OF THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

It is often remarked, as a circumstance fortunate for his fame, that Mr. Hay entered the Department of State just as the United States was entering on its career as a "world power." Such statements, as they are commonly made and understood, betray a want of information as to what the international position of the United States has been; but it is, nevertheless, true that Mr. Hay's lot was cast in a time when there were impending great events, in which the United States was destined to play a conspicuous part, and in which his genius was to shine forth with peculiar splendor.

As the first, but not the least, of his duties as Secretary of State there fell to Mr. Hay the delicate task of restoring diplomatic relations with Spain, and of adjusting the various questions with other powers as well as with Spain that necessarily arose out of the new conditions which existed after the conclusion of peace. For the most part, new treaties with Spain had to be made, the registration of Spanish subjects in the territory ceded and relinquished by Spain had to be carried out, and the return of Spanish prisoners in the hands of the Filipinos had to be dealt with as a diplomatic as well as a practical question.

THE HAY-PAUNCEFOTE CONVENTION.

But, in spite of his preoccupation with these and other current matters, Mr. Hay almost immediately applied himself to the great work of

solving the difficulties that stood in the way of the construction of the interoceanic canal by the United States. As the result of circumstances which it is unnecessary here to narrate, public opinion had centered upon the Nicaragua route. By the convention between the United States and Great Britain of April 19, 1850, commonly called the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, it was provided that neither contracting party should ever acquire or maintain any exclusive control over the canal then in contemplation by way of Lake Nicaragua, nor occupy, colonize, or fortify any part of Central America, but that they should, on the contrary, extend their joint protection to the proposed waterway both during its construction and after its completion. As these stipulations were conceived to stand in the way of the construction and protection of the canal by the United States alone, Mr. Hay sought to replace them with a new treaty; and he at length signed with Lord Pauncefote, at Washington, on February 5, 1900, a convention the object of which was declared to be to remove any objection arising out of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty to the construction of the canal "under the auspices of the Government of the United States," without impairing the "general principle" of "neutralization" established by Article VIII. of that treaty.

This convention was duly submitted to the Senate; but no sooner had it been published than it became the subject of violent attacks, which went so far as to impeach Mr. Hay's capacity. He was assailed as a blundering amateur, incompetent to conduct the foreign relations of the country, and was charged with being too friendly to England. The principal points of the convention at which criticism was aimed were the stipulation that the canal should not be fortified and the provision that the contracting parties should bring the convention to the notice of other powers and invite them to adhere to it. In the end the Senate amended the convention by striking out this provision, and by inserting clauses by which the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was expressly superseded and the United States was allowed a greater freedom with regard to defensive measures.

It is understood that Mr. Hay was deeply wounded by the harsh criticism visited upon him on this occasion. He undoubtedly believed the original convention to be a good one; and, as he had no incentive whatever to public service but the desire for honest fame, it is probable that many men in his predicament might have yielded to a sense of injury, real or fancied, to say nothing of pride or petulance. But Mr. Hay took a higher view of his duty and was patient.

He renewed the negotiations with the British Government, and on November 18, 1901, signed with Lord Pauncefoot a new convention, into which the Senate's amendments were skillfully wrought, and which promptly received the approval of that body. It is not always the most meritorious acts of one's life that are most widely appreciated and most loudly applauded. Mr. Hay's greatest celebrity to-day rests, no doubt, upon his diplomacy in China, but I venture to think that in his negotiations with regard to the canal, his character as a public man underwent the severest test to which it was ever subjected.

THE BOXER OUTBREAK IN CHINA.

When Mr. Hay became Secretary of State, the situation in China was visibly tending toward the critical stage which was soon to attract to the Celestial Empire the interest of the whole civilized world. In connection with the killing, in November, 1897, of two German missionaries in the province of Shantung, the German Government seized Kiaochow, and subsequently obtained of that place and of a stretch of inland territory a "lease" for ninety-nine years, by which the jurisdiction of China was practically excluded and reduced to a nominal remnant of sovereignty. Russia promptly obtained a "lease" of Port Arthur and Talienwan; France, of Kwangchow Bay; Great Britain, of Weihaiwei and Miao Bay and certain territory adjacent to Hongkong. It looked as if the scramble for the final partition of China had begun, and it is not strange that the Chinese thought so. Symptoms of native unrest steadily grew, and soon the society of Boxers appeared on the scene. The anti-foreign movement became formidable. The native authorities were unable to suppress disturbers of the peace, and often were sympathetic with them. A state of practical anarchy supervened. The attitude of the government at Peking became uncertain, and then visibly hostile. Peking was cut off, and the legations, to which many foreigners had flocked, were besieged. An international relief force was organized, but a distressing apprehension was ever present that the next hour might bring the dreadful news of the fall of the legations and the massacre of their inmates.

THE "OPEN-DOOR" POLICY.

The policy which the United States was to pursue at this momentous juncture had already been foreshadowed. On September 6, 1899, Mr. Hay, as Secretary of State, inclosed to the embassy of the United States in Paris, for its confidential information, copies of instructions sent on that day to the American ambassadors in

London, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, in relation to the desire of the United States that Great Britain, Germany, and Russia should each make a formal declaration of an "open-door" policy in the territories held by it in China, the purport of this policy being that the Chinese tariff should continue to be applied to all persons of every nationality within the so-called leased territories and spheres of interest, and that there should be equality of commercial opportunity, without any discrimination, for persons of all nationalities. On March 20, 1900, Mr. Hay was able to announce that all the powers had accepted the American proposals, and the first great step in the development of his policy was accomplished. Grave perils, however, awaited it. The introduction of foreign armed forces into China, although required for the relief of the legations and the protection of life and property, opened up the possibility of an eventual state of war, with its attendant disorders and unknown demands. But, even if a state of war should be avoided, claims for indemnity would have to be dealt with; and, worst of all, if the legations should succumb, the universal and overwhelming popular demand for vengeance.

OUR ATTITUDE IN CHINA DECLARED.

Keenly alive to the dangers of the situation, Mr. Hay, on July 3, 1900, in the midst of gravest apprehensions as to the fate of the legations, addressed a circular telegram to the diplomatic representatives of the United States in the various European countries and Japan, with an instruction to communicate the purport of it to the governments to which they were respectively accredited. In this telegram the attitude of the United States was defined, as far as circumstances permitted. The United States, it was declared, adhered to the policy initiated by it in 1857, "of peace with the Chinese nation, of furtherance of lawful commerce, and of protection of lives and property of our citizens by all means guaranteed under extra-territorial treaty rights and by the law of nations." If wrong was done to American citizens, it was proposed "to hold the responsible authors to the uttermost accountability." The condition of Peking was regarded as one of "virtual anarchy," whereby power and responsibility were practically devolved on the local authorities, who, so long as they were not in overt collusion with rebellion and used their power to protect foreign life and property, would be regarded as representing the Chinese people, with whom the United States sought "to remain in peace and friendship." The specific

objects of the United States were then set forth as follows :

The purpose of the President is, as it has been heretofore, to act concurrently with the other powers : First, in opening up communication with Peking and rescuing American officials, missionaries, and other Americans who are in danger ; secondly, in affording all possible protection everywhere in China to American life and property ; thirdly, in guarding and protecting all legitimate American interests ; and fourthly, in aiding to prevent a spread of the disorders to the other provinces of the empire and a recurrence of such disasters. It is, of course, too early to forecast the means of attaining this last result ; but the policy of the Government of the United States is to seek a solution which may bring about permanent safety and peace to China, preserve Chinese territorial and administrative entity, protect all rights guaranteed to friendly powers by treaty and international law, and safeguard for the world the principle of equal and impartial trade with all parts of the Chinese Empire.

This circular was at once received and acclaimed in the United States as the exposition of an enlightened and generous policy. In a spirit of extravagant panegyric, it has sometimes been represented as a measure which embarrassed and forestalled the governments of Europe in the pursuit of other and sinister designs. In reality, there were few cabinets in which it was not sincerely welcomed. It is a coincidence that, on the very day on which the telegram was sent, M. Delcassé declared, in the Chamber of Deputies, that France did not desire "the break-up of China," which was spoken of "without sufficient reflection ;" that she had "no wish for war with China," but could not "evade the duty of protecting her citizens and obtaining for her merchants the guarantees obtained by others ;" that she was "anxious for the maintenance of the equilibrium in the far East," and that the "common peril" demanded a "common aim." His sentiments were in striking accord with those of Mr. Hay. Lord Salisbury expressed himself as "most emphatically" concurring in the policy of the United States. This was, indeed, the sense of most of the interested governments ; and there could be no better evidence of Mr. Hay's diplomatic capacity than the judgment and skill with which he seized the critical moment to blazon to the world a definite expression of policy and to commit all the allies to its execution and observance.

THE PARLEY WITH RUSSIA IN MANCHURIA.

The telegram of July 3 Mr. Hay ever afterward kept before the powers as the charter of China's prosperity and salvation. In the long negotiations that resulted in the signature of the international protocol of September 6, 1901, at Peking he figured as the apostle of mercy

and humanity. He sought to bring to an end punitive expeditions. He pleaded for moderation in demands for pecuniary indemnity. And when he came to negotiate with China a new commercial treaty, he persistently labored for the insertion of stipulations which would secure an "open door" to the world's commerce even in Manchuria.

After long and patient negotiation, characterized on his part by the utmost candor and good temper, he obtained from Russia a positive promise to evacuate Manchuria on October 8, 1903 ; but whenever he pressed China for the signature of a treaty by which ports in Manchuria were to be opened to American commerce, he encountered a secret but persistent obstruction. He invited China to state her objections ; but she was silent, as it was understood, in the presence of the threats of the Russian *chargé d'affaires* at Peking. He then appealed directly to the Russian Government. Count Lamsdorff disclaimed on the part of that government any wish to oppose the demands of the United States ; and Mr. Hay, with singular candor, or, perhaps we may say, with delightful audacity, then directed the American minister at Peking not only so to advise the Chinese Government, but also to invoke the "coöperation" of M. Lessar, the new Russian minister, on his arrival at Peking. M. Lessar, however, when he appeared, declared that he had no instructions as to the attitude of his government, and declined to make any statement concerning it ; and the old obstruction, instead of being removed, seemed to have been renewed even with increased activity. In spite of this disappointment, Mr. Hay persisted ; and he won his point when, on October 8, 1903, the day on which Manchuria was to have been evacuated, he secured the signature of the treaty by China in the form in which he desired it, and placed our commercial relations with that empire on a more satisfactory basis than ever before.

A FAMOUS PHRASE, "ADMINISTRATIVE ENTITY."

On February 10, 1904, Mr. Hay, after consultation with the representatives of various interested powers, sent to the governments of Russia, Japan, and China an expression of the desire of the United States that in the course of the military operations which had begun between Russia and Japan, "the neutrality of China, and in all practicable ways her administrative entity," should be respected by both parties, and that the area of hostilities should be "localized and limited," so that disturbance of the Chinese people might be prevented, and the least possible loss to the commerce and peaceful intercourse of the world might be oc-

casioned. Responses in a favorable sense were received both from Russia and from Japan, and were communicated to the powers. When the correspondence was published, various conjectures were made in the press as to the precise significance of the phrase "administrative entity" and the reason for its employment. Mr. Hay was, in reality, merely repeating the words of his fundamental circular of July 3, 1900, and his use of it there may be readily explained. In that paper he spoke of China's "territorial and administrative entity." What he sought to prevent was the dismemberment of China either by avowed cessions of territory, or by arrangements which, under the guise of leases or otherwise, left her a nominal title to her domain, without administrative power or control. When we wish to convey the antithesis of territorial dismemberment, we usually speak of "territorial integrity;" but the word "integrity," when used in connection with public administration, suggests rather a correct standard of official conduct. Mr. Hay, before he achieved distinction as a statesman, was, as a man of letters, famous for his wit and humor and for a nice discrimination in the use of words. He evidently had no wish to pose as a diplomatic knight, anxious to break a lance in the cause of China's "administrative integrity." He, therefore, said "territorial and administrative entity."

SETTLEMENT OF OUR CLAIMS AGAINST TURKEY.

I have spoken of Mr. Hay's sagacious patience,—his serene and tenacious confidence that pressure steadily applied in a just and righteous cause would in the end bring the desired result. This quality was signally manifested in his conduct of the negotiations with Turkey for the settlement of claims for the value of American property destroyed during the Armenian disturbances in 1895. Early in December, 1898, Mr. Straus, then American minister at Constantinople, telegraphed that he had had a satisfactory audience with the Sultan, who had "directed the indemnity to be arranged," and had sent his "compliments to the President." In the following April, we find Mr. Hay inquiring as to what progress had been made in the performance of his majesty's promise, and urging a speedy conclusion. Still the settlement was delayed, and in January, 1900, strong representations were authorized. Mr. Straus came to the United States on leave, and did not return. The legation was permitted to remain in the care of its secretary, Mr. Griscom, as *chargé d'affaires ad interim*, who, in April and again in May, was directed to remind the government of the Sultan's promise, with an expression of con-

fidence that it would be kept. In June, Mr. Griscom reported that he had been assured by the secretary of the Sultan that the claims would be settled within three or four months. Yet, in February, 1901, we find Mr. Hay again returning to the charge, expressing the President's expectation that the Sultan's oft-repeated promises would be fulfilled, and insisting upon immediate payment. At last, in the following June, Mr. Leishman, the new American minister, reported that £19,000 had been deposited to his credit in the Imperial Ottoman Bank.

THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY SETTLEMENT.

Mr. Hay undoubtedly possessed the gift of settling controversies. Since the cession of Alaska to the United States in 1867, the boundary between that territory and the Dominion of Canada had remained undetermined, and the adjustment of it had become imperative. An important step in that direction was the *modus vivendi* which was effected at Washington, on October 20, 1899, by an exchange of notes between Mr. Hay and the British *chargé d'affaires ad interim*, by which a provisional line was fixed about the head of Lynn Canal. In replying to local criticisms upon his action, Mr. Hay declared that the rights of the United States remained "absolutely intact," and that their assertion in due time would be "earnest and thorough." These declarations were afterward abundantly justified. By the convention signed at Washington on January 24, 1903, and the decision rendered thereunder, the claims of the United States were completely established.

His course in this as well as in other matters shows how groundless was the accusation now and then made that he was "too friendly to England." There are in every country persons who, by reason of special prepossessions, demand that its policy shall be governed, not by consideration for the interests of its own people, but by partiality for or hostility toward the interests of some other people. Mr. Hay certainly was not one of these. He no doubt believed, and acted upon the belief, that the maintenance of friendly relations between the United States and Great Britain, on the basis of mutual respect, was a sound and advantageous policy, especially with reference to the "open-door" rule for which England had always stood in the far East. He also exhibited a wise friendliness toward Germany, when, by the treaty of December 2, 1899, he finally settled to her satisfaction the Samoan question, without abandoning the particular interests of the United States. In these things he acted simply as an "American." He wished for no other title for himself, and

insisted upon its being used by our legations and consulates even at the cost of some legal and practical inconvenience.

ENFORCEMENT OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

Mr. Hay once declared, in a speech before the New York Chamber of Commerce, that the cardinal principles of the foreign policy of the United States were "the Monroe Doctrine and the Golden Rule." For the application of the latter there is opportunity in the diplomacy of all nations; of the former, the United States is the special champion, and it found a careful guardian in Mr. Hay. Its exposition, as made in President Roosevelt's annual message of December 3, 1901, no doubt had his full concurrence. "The Monroe Doctrine," said President Roosevelt, "is a declaration that there must be no territorial aggrandizement by a non-American power at the expense of any American power on American soil;" it is "in no wise intended as hostile to any nation in the old world;" it "has nothing to do with the commercial relations of any American power, save that it in truth allows each of them to form such as it desires;" nor does it "guarantee any state against punishment if it misconducts itself, provided that punishment does not take the form of the acquisition of territory by any non-American power." In this sense the Monroe Doctrine was observed in 1902 and 1903, when Germany, Great Britain, and Italy joined in a blockade of Venezuelan ports. The most explicit pledges were given to the United States of an intention to respect the American policy as it had been defined. No attempt was made forcibly to interfere with the execution by the powers of the particular measure of redress which they had adopted; but the good offices of the United States were, nevertheless, actively employed, with the result that the blockade was lifted and the adjustment of claims committed to tribunals of arbitration.

EFFORTS TO PROMOTE ARBITRATION.

Mr. Hay was a warm and consistent advocate of international arbitration. In his instructions to the American delegates to the peace conference at The Hague, he declared that the duty of sovereign states to promote international justice by all wise and effective means was second only to the fundamental necessity of preserving their own existence. On at least nine separate occasions he was concerned in the employment of international arbitration as the means of securing a just result. But he was not content with special applications; he sought to create a general and obligatory practice; and it may be said that his

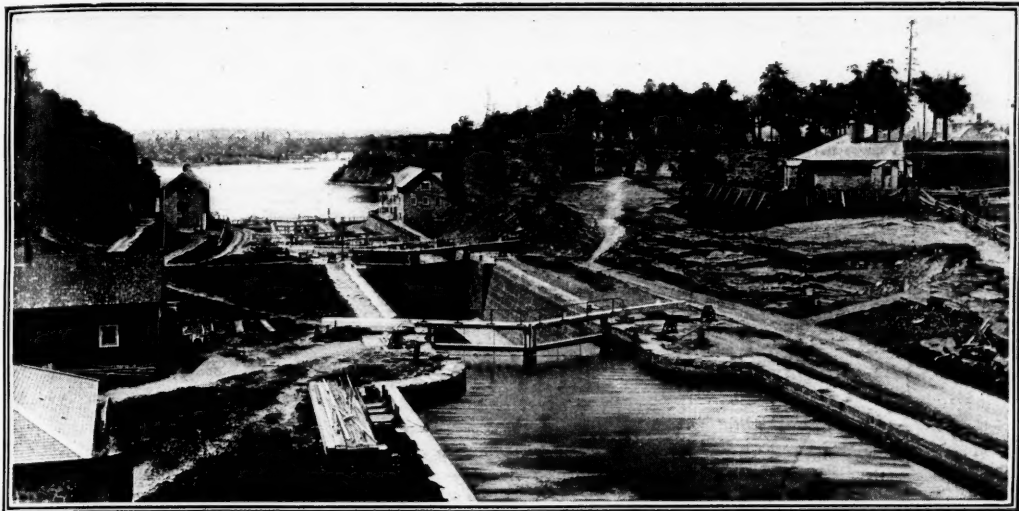
last diplomatic work was his effort to bring about treaty relations under which arbitration should in certain classes of cases be systematically used. This work remains to be carried to a conclusion.

TREATY-MAKING UNDER MR. HAY.

With the vast growth of the country in all things, there is an inevitable and steady increase in the business of the departments at Washington. This increase adds to the already heavy burdens of the Secretary of State, to whose department Congress has seldom been generous. During Mr. Hay's administration of its affairs at least fifty-eight formal international agreements were concluded and put into force, most of them in the form of treaties. Of extradition treaties alone not less than fourteen were made. And as each treaty, or agreement, represents the result of a negotiation which, perhaps, was long and intricate, these examples may serve to illustrate the vast amount of current business for the transaction of which the Secretary of State must be responsible, most of it performed quietly and unobtrusively and without attracting general attention. It is needless to say that the hands of the Secretary of State should be strengthened by the provision of a force and equipment adequate to all his needs.

HAY, ROOSEVELT, AND PANAMA.

This sketch of Mr. Hay's diplomatic career would be incomplete without mention of the circumstance that it has now and then been opined by some persons, who failed to approve certain diplomatic transactions, that there was a lack of coincidence of views between him and President Roosevelt in matters of foreign policy. It is hardly probable that any President and Secretary of State ever perfectly agreed on all questions; but, apart from such minor differences of opinion as must always exist between men of independent thought and character, there is every reason to believe that President Roosevelt and Mr. Hay worked in entire harmony. Some of those who had spoken the praises of Mr. Hay wished to believe that he was not in sympathy with the President's course in the recognition of the republic of Panama, but of such a variance not the slightest evidence has ever been produced. There is certainly none in his able correspondence with General Reyes, in answer to the complaints of Colombia; and he no doubt spoke from conviction when he declared, in his address at Jackson, Mich., that the President, in his conduct of the Panama affair, "forged as perfect a bit of honest statecraft as this generation has seen."



THE RIDEAU CANAL LOCKS AT OTTAWA, CANADA.

CANADA'S CANAL SYSTEM.

BY M. M. WILNER.

PROBABLY no one ever has looked thoughtfully at a map of North America without noting the commercial possibilities offered by the wonderful chain of waterways that reach from the Atlantic coast into the very heart of the continent. Aside from the great fall at Niagara, nature has interposed only half-a-dozen rapids to interfere with the navigation of this remarkable system. Projects for overcoming these obstacles have been entertained ever since the occupation of the country by white men. The first canals built were designed to accommodate only batteaux, which were flat-bottomed and drew less than one foot of water. The locks were 6 feet wide and 30 feet long, with 2½ feet of water on the sills. The remains of one of these canals may still be seen on the south bank of the St. Lawrence, at Point au Buisson. In 1804, they were enlarged to give a depth of 4 feet of water in the locks. They then admitted boats of 35 tons' cargo, which was their capacity during the War of 1812. Military necessities gave an impetus to canal-building at that time, but the work languished after the return of peace, and it was not until Canada had become a self-ruling province that the enterprise of opening the St. Lawrence was prosecuted with energy and carried to completion.

To-day it is possible for a vessel drawing not more than 14 feet of water to steam from any

ocean port in the world direct to Duluth or Chicago. In order to utilize the entire 2,384 miles of this water route it has been necessary to build only 73½ miles of canal. The difference in level between Lake Superior and tide-water, which is 602 feet, is overcome by 48 locks, having a total lift of 551 feet. Nearly \$90,000,000 has been spent in the construction and improvement of these canals, and about \$20,000,000 more in their maintenance.

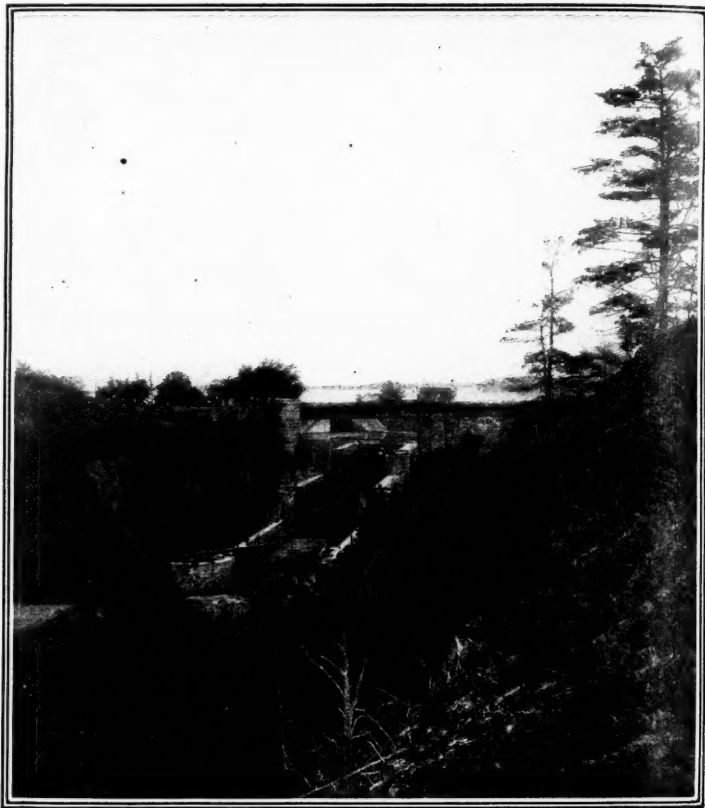
ST. LAWRENCE RIVER IMPROVEMENTS.

Few people who have not traveled upon it realize the great length of the St. Lawrence River. Its mouth, commercially speaking, is the Strait of Belle Isle, between Newfoundland and Labrador, that being the channel commonly used by vessels sailing to and from Europe. It is 826 miles from this strait to Quebec, and 986 miles to Montreal. Montreal is therefore nearly as far from the ocean as the mouth of the Ohio River is from the Gulf of Mexico. Yet it is classed as an ocean port. Not only is it accessible to any ordinary ocean vessel, but the tides of the Atlantic come to within a few miles of the city. This long channel always has been navigable for vessels drawing not more than 10 feet of water. Since 1888 the shoals between Montreal and Quebec have been dredged to a minimum depth of 27½ feet, making a submerged canal

39½ miles long, which may properly be considered the first section of the Canadian canal system.

Just above Montreal are the famous Lachine rapids, the most turbulent in the river. Here begins the first of the canals proper. It is called the Lachine. It cuts across a bend in the river for a distance of 8½ miles, overcoming a fall of 45 feet with five locks. It was originally planned by Sir George Prevost in 1815 as a military work, but was not completed till 1825. At that time the depth of water in the locks was only 4½ feet. It has been twice enlarged since then. Two of the locks now have 16 feet of water on the sills, and the others 14 feet, which is the governing depth of the entire water route to the Great Lakes.

Above the Lachine rapids the river broadens out into what is called Lake St. Louis. Sixteen miles farther up is a succession of rapids called the Coteau, the Cedar, and the Cascade. To overcome these the Beauharnois Canal was built in 1845. It runs for 12 miles along the south bank of the river, and has 9 feet of water in the locks. This canal, however, has given way to the march of improvement. In 1892, the Canadian government began the building of the Soulanges Canal, on the north side of the river, and since its completion, seven years later, the old Beauharnois has been practically abandoned for navigation purposes, though it is still maintained as a power canal. The Soulanges is the newest and embodies the latest engineering ideas of any of the Canadian canals. It has been called the best modern canal in the world. It has cost nearly \$7,000,000, which is at the rate of about \$500,000 a mile, since the channel is 14 miles long. In this reach there are only two slight curves. The fall of 84 feet, which in the old Beauharnois required nine locks, is overcome in the Soulanges by four locks, each having a lift of 23½ feet. These are operated by electricity, which is generated by the power developed at the locks themselves. The same power furnishes electric light, which makes the



THE FIRST LOCKS OF THE RIDEAU CANAL, AT KINGSTON.

channel navigable at night. The canal is 100 feet wide on the bottom and 164 on the surface, and has 15 feet of water on the lock sills. A fine macadam highway runs along its bank. Highway bridges swing from the shore, dispensing with piers in the center of the channel. One of the difficulties encountered by the engineers was the crossing of three small streams which discharge into the St. Lawrence along the canal route. These have been depressed, and are carried under the channel through several 10-foot tubes.

A stretch of 33 miles of open water through Lake St. Francis leads to the entrance of the Cornwall Canal, which overcomes the Long Sault rapids, the most difficult of any in the river except the Lachine. This canal was originally built, in 1843, to accommodate boats of 9-foot draught. It has been practically rebuilt since 1890, bringing it up to the 14-foot standard. The old 9-foot locks are still maintained, however, and can be used by the smaller class of vessels. The new locks are 270 feet long and

45 feet wide. Six of them are required in a channel 11 miles long.

The three remaining artificial waterways along the St. Lawrence are collectively known as the Williamsburg canals, though there are several miles of river channel between them and each has its individual name. The first of these is the Farran's Point Canal, 1 mile long. Here a new lock, 800 feet long, has been built. It is capable of taking an entire tow at a time. Ten miles farther up the stream is the Rapide Plat Canal, $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, with two locks of the standard type, and 4 miles farther on is the Galops Canal, with one guard and two lift locks, one of which has been carried out to a length of 800 feet. This canal is in two sections—the Iroquois and the Cardinal. They are really two separate canals, but are connected by an embankment which makes a channel known as the Junction Canal. The total length is $7\frac{1}{4}$ miles. The Cardinal section has been cut through a high bluff, on which stands the village of Cardinal. The government bought a part of the town and moved it out of the way. This cut is 68 feet deep at its highest point, and is 5,900

feet long. Its slopes are protected by masonry, making it one of the most interesting points along the entire route.

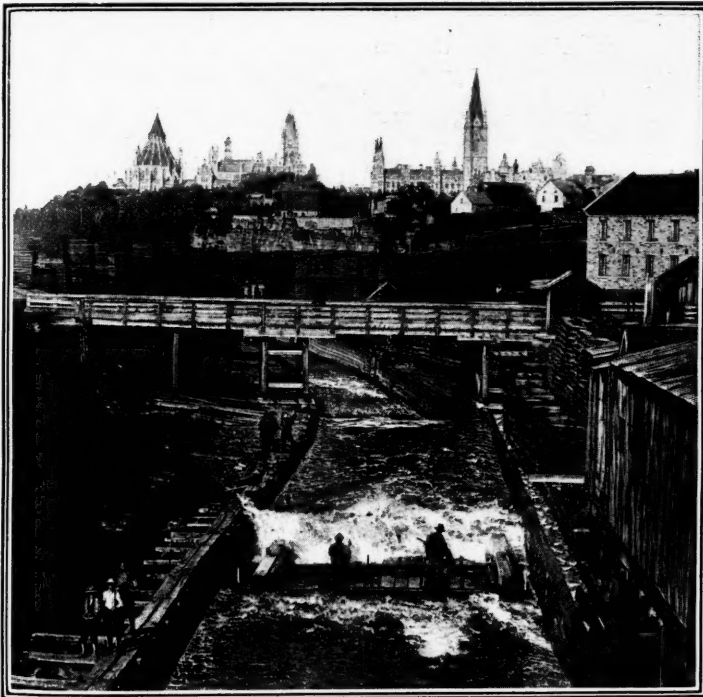
The whole St. Lawrence system has 43 miles of artificial channel and 26 locks, the total distance from Montreal to Kingston being 188 miles. There is one canal along the north shore of Lake Ontario, the Murray, giving a passage 5 miles long between the western end of the Bay of Quinte and the lake. This is used, however, only for local traffic.

AROUND NIAGARA FALLS.

By far the most famous of the Canadian canals is the Welland, though it is really of less importance to Canada than those along the St. Lawrence. This is shown by the fact that the quantity of freight passing up and down the St. Lawrence is a third greater each year than the quantity going through the Welland. Moreover, two-thirds of the vessels that use the Welland are under the flag of the United States, while on the St. Lawrence canals three-fourths of the vessels are Canadian. The Canadians, however, had connected Lake Erie and Lake Ontario with

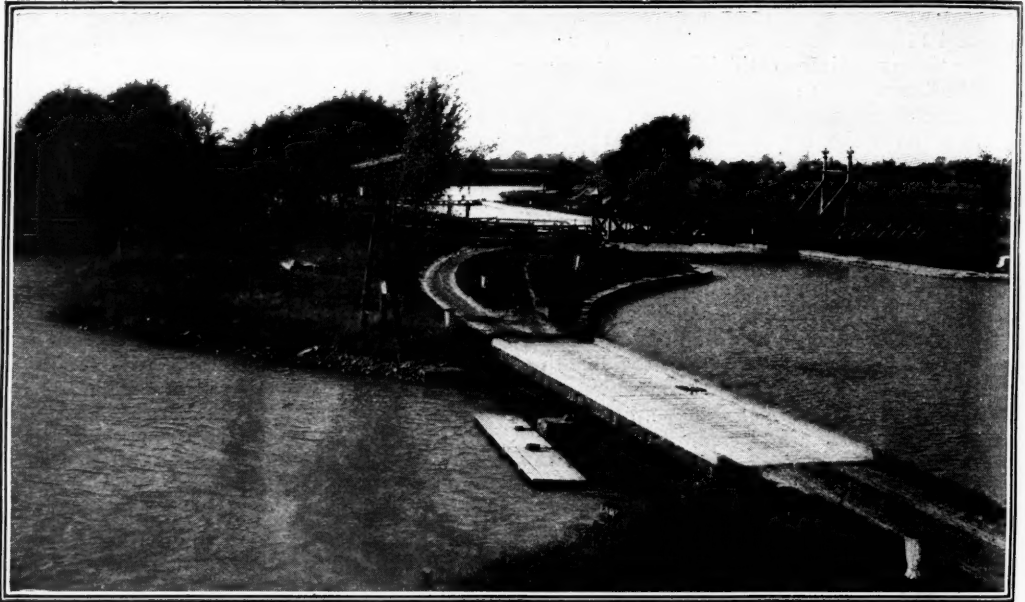
a canal of sufficient dimensions to accommodate the lake vessels of that day, while the St. Lawrence was still closed to everything but batteaux, and this canal had reached the 14-foot depth twelve years before the St. Lawrence channels had been opened to vessels drawing more than 9 feet. The Welland now extends in a nearly straight line from Port Dalhousie, on Lake Ontario, to Port Colborne, on Lake Erie, a distance of $26\frac{3}{4}$ miles. In this short channel there are 25 lift locks and one guard lock. The total fall overcome is $326\frac{3}{4}$ feet. More than half the entire difference in elevation between Lake Superior and the lower St. Lawrence is encountered in this Welland peninsula. The locks are still of the standard 14-foot depth, to which they were enlarged in 1887, and are 270 feet long and 45 feet wide.

In addition to the main line of the canal, the government maintains the old chan-



THE FAMOUS TIMBER CANAL, OR CHUTE, FROM THE UPPER TO THE LOWER OTTAWA RIVER, PAST THE CHAUDIÈRE FALLS.

(A thrilling 100-foot downhill ride on a raft.)



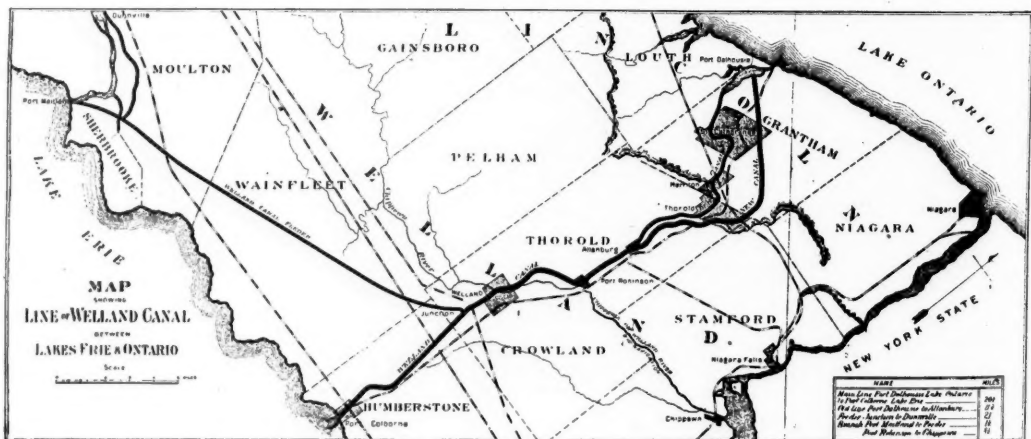
A SCENE ON THE WELLAND CANAL NEAR ST. CATHARINES.

nel for $11\frac{3}{4}$ miles, from Port Dalhousie southward, with a depth of $10\frac{1}{4}$ feet. At Port Robinson a junction is formed with the Chippewa or Welland River, which flows eastward into the Niagara just above the Canadian rapids. With only two locks, overcoming a fall of but 10 feet, a navigable channel, 9 feet 10 inches deep, is maintained by way of this river to the Niagara, but it is little used. Another 9-foot branch runs to Port Maitland, a few miles up the lake from Port Colborne, connecting with the Grand

River, which thus becomes the principal feeder for the main canal.

A BIT OF NATIONAL PRIDE.

The Welland Canal completes the water route from the ocean to the interior lakes, but there is one other important link in the chain, which was built, not because of an actual necessity, but to satisfy the desire of Canadians to have a through channel from Lake Superior in their own territory. This is the Sault Sainte Marie



MAP OF THE WELLAND CANAL, BETWEEN LAKES ERIE AND ONTARIO.

Canal, connecting Lake Superior and Lake Huron. The canal is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and consists practically of a single great lock 900 feet long and 60 feet wide, with 20 feet 3 inches of water on the sill. It has cost more than \$4,000,000. It is a trifle longer than the lock on the American side, but is of less width, and the American lock takes vessels of 21 feet draught. The American lock is the largest in the world. The two locks pass more tonnage each year than any other canal in the world. The proportion of the Canadian lock is from one-fifth to one-fourth of the total each season.

WATER ROUTE TO NEW YORK.

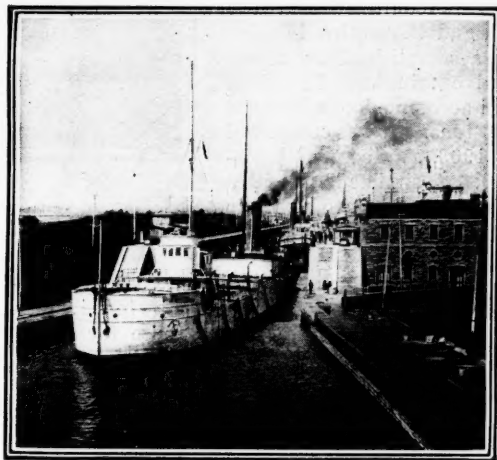
The only remaining ship canal in Canada is a stretch about half a mile long, at Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, connecting St. Peter's Bay with the Bras d'Or lakes. There are three barge systems, however, which deserve some attention. One of these has a special interest for Americans because it forms part of a complete water route, over 400 miles long, from Montreal or Quebec to New York. This is the Richelieu and Lake Champlain system. It extends from Sorel, at the confluence of the Richelieu and St. Lawrence rivers, to the international boundary. The distance is 81 miles. The natural channel of the Richelieu River is used for the greater part of the way. There are a dam and a lock at St. Ours, 14 miles south of Sorel, and 20 miles farther south the Chambly Canal begins, running for 12 miles along the river-bank. There are nine locks in this canal. The governing depth is 7 feet, which corresponds with that of the present Champlain Canal from Whitehall to Troy, though the Champlain will be deepened to 12 feet in a few years.

A more important system, commercially, follows the Ottawa River from its mouth, a few miles above Montreal, to Ottawa, 119 miles. This is all-river navigation except the Ste. Anne lock, at the head of Montreal Island, and the Carillon & Grenville Canal, $7\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, which contains 9-foot locks. At Ottawa, connection is made with the Rideau Canal, stretching south-westward 126 miles to Kingston, at the foot of Lake Ontario. About half of this waterway is artificial, the Rideau and Cataraqui rivers furnishing the remainder. There are 35 locks, but only 14 of them are used on the down trip. The governing navigation depth is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

SHORT-CUT TO LAKE HURON.

There is a remarkable chain of natural waterways forming almost a complete connection between Georgian Bay, the eastern projection of Lake Huron, and the Bay of Quinte, which is

the northern projection of Lake Ontario. It extends up the Trent River and through a succession of small lakes to Lake Balsam, thence to Lake Simcoe, and down the Severn River to Georgian Bay. The distance is 216 miles, and the only gap is the 19 miles between Lake Balsam and Lake Simcoe. This is called the Trent navigation system. About 66 miles of it are now unnavigable. Only about 20 miles of actual canal would be needed to open the whole route. Work now under way will make a continuous channel, 160 miles long, from Heely's Falls, 43



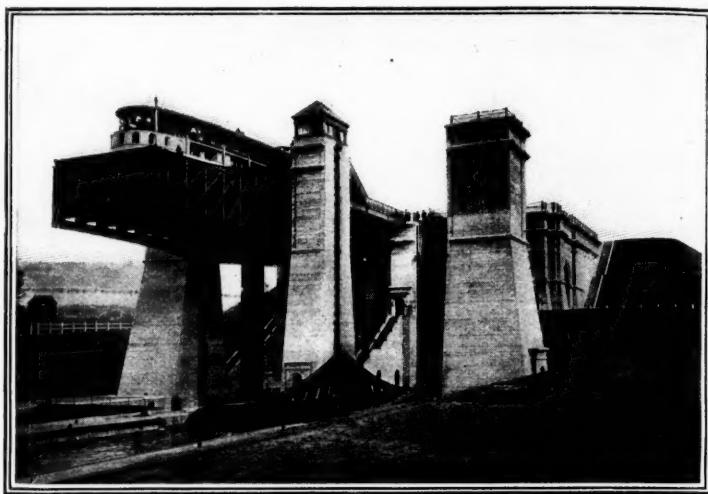
THE CANADIAN CANAL, AT SAULT STE MARIE.

miles above Trenton, to Lake Simcoe. Only the terminal reaches will then have to be improved to change the Trent system from an interior to an interlake waterway, which, the Canadians hope, will prove a strong rival to the Erie Canal. The distance from Lake Huron to the St. Lawrence River by way of Lake Erie and the Welland Canal is over 500 miles, so there will be a saving of about 300 miles by the new channel. The Trent system will not be a ship canal, as has been erroneously represented by some American newspapers. The governing depth of water in the locks is only $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet. Moreover, the difficulties to be overcome are such that it is improbable that a ship canal ever will be attempted by this route.

The Trent system has become famous among engineers for the lock at Peterborough, about 100 miles northwest of Trenton. This lock, which is of the hydraulic type, makes a direct vertical lift of 65 feet. It is the only one of the kind on the continent, and the largest in the world. Two water-tight steel boxes, each holding 1,300 tons of water, ascend and descend

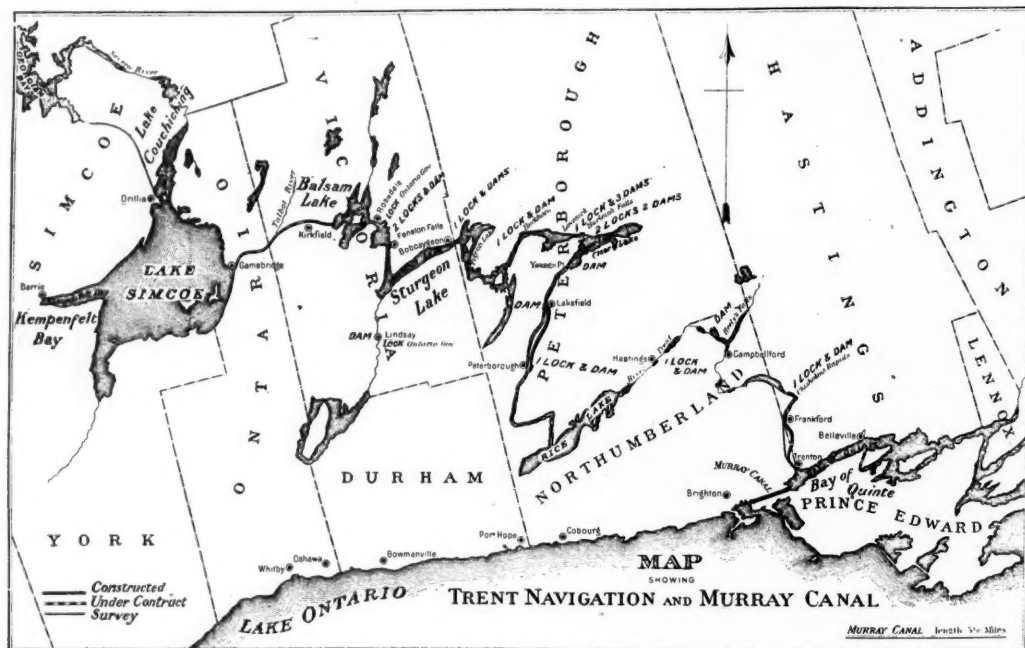
between three great guide towers, 100 feet high, built of solid masonry. When one chamber is up the other is always down. A boat enters a chamber; the gates are closed; a little additional weight of water is introduced into the other chamber and the boat rises swiftly and steadily to the higher level, the operation being almost automatic. Only three minutes are required to make the lift, and the entire lockage is accomplished in about twelve minutes. The lock will accommodate a barge of 800 tons. It was completed in 1903, at a cost of \$500,000. A similar lock, with a lift of 55 feet, is to be begun this year at Kirkfield, between Lake Balsam and Lake Simcoe.

There is another possible water connection between Lake Huron and the St. Lawrence which is said to afford a practicable route for a ship canal. This is by way of Lake Nipissing and the Mattawa and Ottawa rivers. The total dis-



THE PETERBOROUGH HYDRAULIC LIFT LOCK.

tance from Georgian Bay to Montreal by this route is 430 miles, which would be some 300 miles less than the present route by way of Lake Erie. A survey and favorable report were made as long ago as 1856. G. Y. Wisner, a Detroit engineer, stated before the United States Merchant Marine Commission that a 30-foot canal along



MAP SHOWING THE TRENT NAVIGATION AND MURRAY CANAL.

this line could be built for \$80,000,000, with only 40 miles of actual canal and 74 miles of improved river navigation, the remainder being natural channel. In practice, however, it would not pay to send costly lake or ocean vessels through such a long and narrow inland waterway.

Another project which has been discussed is to build a ship canal from Georgian Bay directly to Toronto. The distance is about 70 miles, which is nearly the length of the course now used by lake vessels from Lake Huron to Lake Erie through the St. Clair River and lake and the Detroit River. The work, however, would be expensive, and the commercial results doubtful.

WELL WORTH DOING.

Taken as a whole, the Canadian canals represent a very creditable degree of enterprise. As commercial competitors with other trade routes, they claim their share of commerce, and they must always have a healthful, regulating effect on freight rates. They transport about one third more through freight each season to Montreal than is carried from Buffalo to New York by the

present Erie Canal. Montreal's grain receipts by both lake and rail in 1904 were about one-fifth those of Buffalo by lake alone. The typical boat using the Welland and the St. Lawrence canals is 247 by 42.6 feet. Such a boat can carry 68,000 bushels of grain or 3,000 tons of iron ore. The newest lake boats run as high as 569 feet in length and 56 feet beam. The trip down the St. Lawrence has some advantage over the return voyage, inasmuch as vessels have to use only the Cornwall, Soulanges, and Lachine canals. The rapids opposite the other canals can be run easily. All the rapids are run by passenger steamers built especially for the purpose, but this is done only to make the trip more interesting to tourists. A great disadvantage of the route is the high insurance charged on vessels traversing the lower St. Lawrence. Through voyages from the ocean to the upper lakes have not generally proved profitable.

But while the expectations of visionary people have not been, and probably never will be, realized, the Canadian canals amply repay the cost of building and maintaining them.

ELECTRIC TRACTION ON GERMAN RIVERS AND CANALS.

AN interesting solution of the river and canal traction problem has been attempted on the Feltow Canal, in Germany. The question to be decided was that of some rapid and cheap means of traction. Tugs could not be used, as the canal is too narrow. The engineers, therefore, had recourse to electric traction upon the towing-path; but there was the difficulty, how not to hamper work on the banks in any way.

This canal, which traverses an industrial region, forms a kind of port throughout the whole of its length. Pinnacles are always lying along its banks, in order to take in or discharge cargo, and it is essential that the cable serving to draw the boats should always pass above the masts (about four meters in height) of the pinnacles or barges arranged along the banks of the canal or traveling in the opposite direction.

A competitive exhibition was organized, in which the chief German electrical firms participated. The victory was carried off by Siemens & Schuckert with an electric locomotive of a special type, which was first tested for a period of two months. A small generating station was put up, and supplied continuous current of 550 volts to the motors of the locomotive by means

of a double-conductor trolley line. The engine weighs 6.5 tons, including two 8-horse-power motors driving the axles, of which there are three, by means of double gearing.

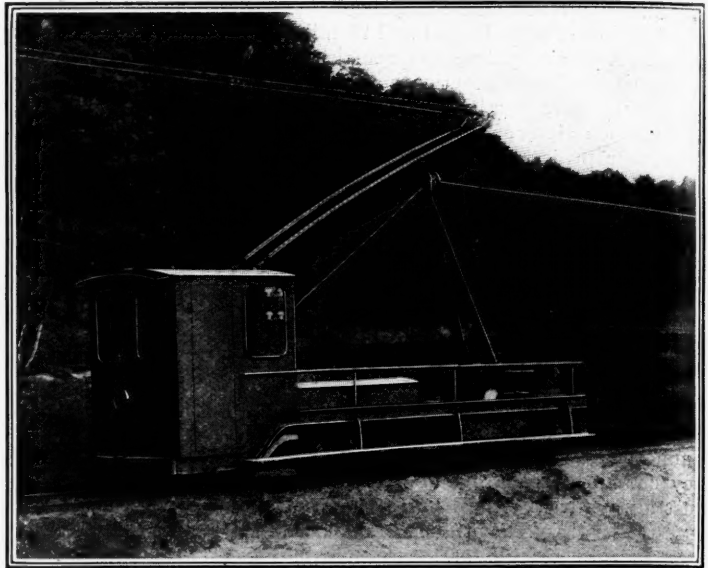
The two live axles are mounted on a bogie. Immediately behind the engine driver's cab,—which is, of course, in front of the vehicle and entirely closed in by glass,—there is the towing-winch, which is not rigidly fixed to its shaft, but connected therewith by means of a friction coupling which commences to slide at a fixed strain. On leaving the winch the towing-cord passes through an eye made at the end of an iron rod situated upon the rear axle of the locomotive. This rod is adapted to pivot on its base, and can be raised or lowered by the aid of a 1-horse-power motor. The cord is then attached to the vessel to be towed. To enable the machine to withstand the strain put upon it by the towing-cord, its weight is not symmetrically distributed.

The rail on the land side carries 85 per cent. of the weight of the locomotive, while the rail on the bank side carries 15 per cent. The towing tests were made with barges, one of which measured 53 meters in length, 7.80 meters in

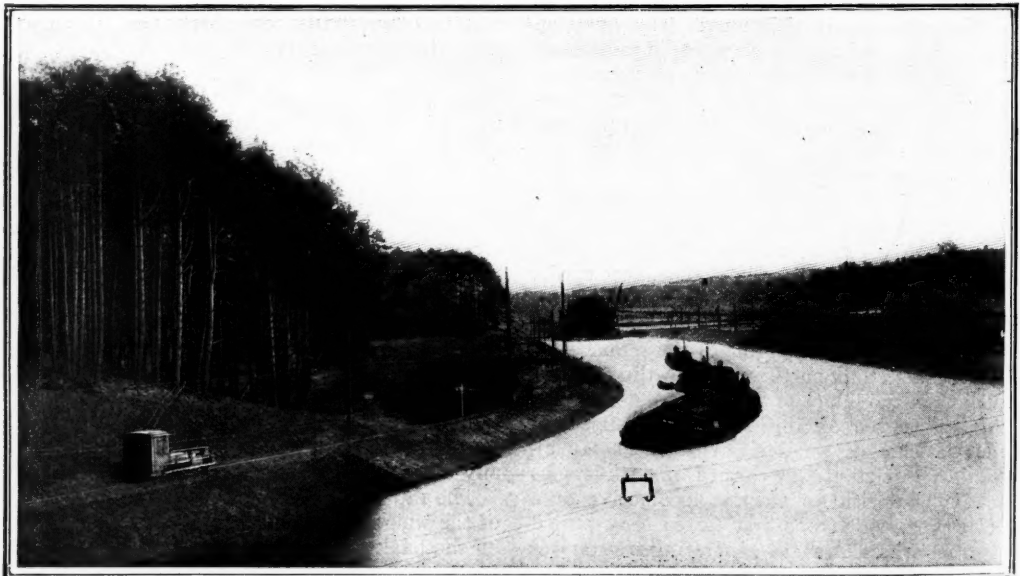
width, and having a draught of 1.70 meters with a load of 400 tons. The second was 48 meters in length, 6.50 meters in width, with a draught of 1.30 meters under a load of 320 tons; the third was 45 meters in length, 4.60 meters in width, with a draught of 1.50 meters under a load of 190 tons; and, finally, the fourth was 45 meters in length, 4.50 meters in width, with a draught of 1.40 meters under a load of 154 tons. When running empty, the locomotive consumes 4.5 amperes at a speed of 5 kilometers per hour, and 8.5 amperes at a speed of 10 kilometers. The tension is always 550 volts. In some of the tests the towing-rope measured 78 meters in length, and the iron rod supporting it was 3.90 meters above the water. First,

one of the barges was towed, and then groups of two, three, and four barges. At a mean speed of 4.02 kilometers per hour the traction resistance was about 0.954 kilograms per ton load, with a consumption of 0.014 kilowatts per ton; in this case, 5.6 watts-hours were

required per each ton-mile of load. It was found that the traction resistance increased about 15 per cent. when the barges were near the bank of the canal, while it decreased by nearly 10 per cent. directly two boats passed or crossed each other. For short towing lengths the resistance increased very rapidly.



ELECTRIC MOTOR USED ON THE FELTOW CANAL.



TOWING CANAL-BOATS BY ELECTRIC MOTOR ON THE FELTOW CANAL, GERMANY.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE DUTCH PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN HOLLAND, BELGIUM, AND SWITZERLAND.

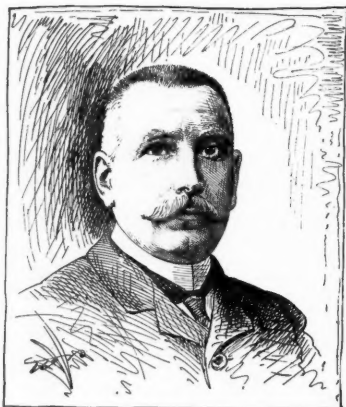
MANY of the most highly prized of our national American characteristics have come to us from the Dutch ancestors of our oldest families. No more clearly is this shown than in the independence of our thought, particularly in the press. The Dutch press has always been noted for its independence and for the extent of its field. There are a dozen or more high-class illustrated monthly reviews and popular magazines which have the world for their field.

The sturdy moral, religious, and mental qualities of the Dutch people are shown strikingly by the fact that the premier of the kingdom up to a few weeks ago was Dr. Kuyper, head of the Conservative Church and editor of the *Standaard*, a great daily, which is counted the chief of the clerical organs, besides being a fine progressive journal. The first editor, head of a great church, and prime minister,—in no country of the world except Holland would this be possible.

The literary and mechanical finish of the

Dutch monthlies is unsurpassed. *De Gids* (The Guide), of Amsterdam, devotes itself to literary and descriptive articles, and to political discussion of a very advanced tone. *Onze Eeuw* (Our Century), of Haarlem, is more conservative, but fully as influential. *Elsevier's* (*Elsevier's Geïllustreerd Maandschrift*—Elsevier's Illustrated Monthly), published in Amsterdam, is perhaps the best illustrated monthly published in The Netherlands. In make-up it resembles the *Century* or *Harper's*. *Boon's Magazijn* (Amsterdam) is somewhat cheaper in form, but well illustrated and of immense circulation. *De Hollandsche Revue* (Haarlem) is conducted in much the same way as the English and American *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. It has original features, and reviews and translations. It is well illustrated. The editor, Frans Netscher, is a well-known writer, belonging to the younger school of Dutch literary men, and a follower of Zola.

The Dutch have an influential and extensive weekly press. The *Amsterdammer* (*Weekblad voor*



MR. FRANS NETSCHER.
(Editor of the *Hollandsche Revue*.)



MR. CHARLES BOISSEVAIN.
(Editor of the *Algemeen Handelsblad*.)



DR. A. KUYPER.
(Editor of the *Standaard*.)

Nederland—Weekly for The Netherlands) is very advanced politically, and a finely edited review of the week. It is generally known as *De Groene* (The Green), on account of its green cover, and is exceedingly popular through the fine cartoon work of Joh. Braakensiek, whose cartoons are often reproduced in this REVIEW. *De Prins* (The Prince), of Amsterdam, is another popular and progressive weekly. *Eigen Haard* (Our Own Hearth), also of Amsterdam, is old-fashioned, but solid, while *Aarde en haer Volken* (the Earth and Its Peoples), of Amsterdam, is especially known for its descriptions of different countries. It is well illustrated, and is to the Dutch what *Autour du Monde* is to the French.

Daily journalism among the Dutch is dignified, progressive, and highly influential. In political character, the principal Dutch newspapers are divided between the two great parties,—the Liberal and Conservative. The two great Liberal supporters are *Het Algemeen Handelsblad* (The General Trade Journal), of Amsterdam, and the *Nieuwe Rotterdamsche Courant* (New Rotterdam Newspaper), of Rotterdam. The editor of the former is Charles Boissevain, a well-known political and economic writer. The Conservative, anti-revolutionary, and clerical organ is *De Standaard* (Amsterdam), edited by Dr. A. Kuyper, a remarkably clever man and a writer of many books. Another newspaper which supports the clericals is *Het Nieuws van den Dag* (The News of the Day), published in Amsterdam, perhaps the most popular journal in the country. It is read in every town and hamlet. It has a circulation of forty thousand, which for a population of five and one-half millions is a good deal.

THE PERIODICAL PRESS OF BELGIUM.

Although a great quantity of French and German printed matter is read in Belgium and all the large French and German periodicals (particularly the French) are largely patronized, the Belgians have an extensive periodical literature of their own in the French and Flemish languages, and some in the Walloon language. There are comparatively few Belgian monthlies or weeklies, but many strong and influential dailies.

The Belgian daily press may be said to be almost exclusively partisan. Politics enters largely into the daily life of the Belgians. There are three great parties,—Conservative, Liberal, and Socialist,—the first two dividing the country. The best-known and most influential journals are, of course, published in Brussels. At present, the Conservative, or Catholic, party is in power, and its principal organs are the *Journal de Bruxelles*, the organ of the present ministry, the *Patriote*, and the *Vingtième Siècle* (Twentieth Century). Outside of the capital, the best-known Conservative papers are the *Bien Public* (Public Good), of Ghent, a purely clerical organ, and the *Metropole*, of Antwerp, a Catholic commercial journal. The Liberal party in the capital numbers among its supporters the veteran and world-famous *Indépendance Belge*, the *Étoile Belge*, and the *Chronique*. The *Indépendance Belge* is one of the best-edited and most influential daily newspapers of Europe,—indeed, of the world. Its news service is excellent, and its editorial page far-famed, particularly for its opinions on international topics. The editor is, perhaps, the best-known Belgian journalist, Roland de Marés, who, though an opponent of the



IMPORTANT BELGIAN PUBLICATIONS.

party in power, supports the government's policy in the Congo. The *Indépendance Belge* is a very old journal, and formerly, when France was an empire, it had considerable influence among the French people generally. This journal has a wide circulation throughout the Continent.

The two minor parties, the Progressive and Socialistic, also have their organs, the *Réforme* and the *Peuple*, of Brussels. All these journals are printed in French, which is the dominant language of the kingdom. There are, however, many influential and popular journals in the Flemish language. Among these, the best-known and longest-established are *Het Laatste Nieuws* (The Last News), in Brussels, and *Het Handelsblad* (The Business Journal), published in Antwerp.



MR. ROLAND DE MARÉS.
(Editor *L'Indépendance Belge*.)

Among the reviews and weeklies are the *Revue Générale*, the *Revue de Belgique*, and the two illustrated weeklies, the *Belgique Illustrée* and the *National Illustré*. Then there is the important, influential sheet, the *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* (Monitor of Material Interests), and also the authoritative official publication of the government, the *Moniteur Belge*.

THE SWISS PRESS.

The daily press of Switzerland, particularly that in the German and French languages, is among the oldest in Europe. The *Ordinäre Wochenzeitung*, founded in Basle in 1610, but, which suspended publication one year later, is claimed to have been the first newspaper published beyond the Alps. About 1633, Zurich received her first newspaper, the *Wöchentliche Ordinäre und Extraordinäre Zeitung*. The oldest newspaper published in Switzerland to-day is the *Zürchische Freitagszeitung*, in Zurich, founded in 1683. This journal was published by a family named Bürkli for over one hundred and eighty years. There are fourteen Swiss dailies existing to-day which were founded between 1758 and 1799. The Swiss people, while they patronize largely the periodical press of Germany, France, and Italy, have an excellent and influential daily press of their own. It is only in the monthlies and weeklies that they depend on other European countries for their reading. At present there are, in round numbers, about 1,000 journals, 584 of these being in German, 326 in French, 36 in Italian, 6 in English, 3 in Romanish, and 45 in various other languages. The oldest are published in Basle and Geneva. Among the best-known of the Swiss journals, at home or abroad, are: In German, the *Bund*, of Berne; the *Anzeiger*, of Basle; the *Tagblatt*, the *Post*, and the *Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, of Zurich; the *Vaterland*, of Lucerne, and the *Oberland*, of Interlaken. In French, the *Journal de Genève*, of Geneva, and the *Gazette de Lausanne* and the *Suisse Libérale*, of

Neuchâtel. And in Italian, the *Dovere*, of Bellinzona, and the *Gazzetta Ticinese*, of Lugano. These dailies are of the same general typographical form, and contain the same general contents, as the German and French dailies. In the dailies of the smaller towns there is a great deal of commercial news about the local district. The *Bund*, of Berne, is in many respects the most influential Swiss daily. Its editor, Dr. M. Bühler, is a well-known Swiss politician. The *National Zeitung*, of Basle, was up to a few months ago edited by a well-known Swiss public man, Dr. Émile Frey, formerly Swiss minister to the United States. The *Zürcher Tagblatt* is also a very old and influential Zurich daily. Other Swiss papers in German of age and influence are: *Aargauer Tagblatt*, of Aarau; *Appenzeller Zeitung*, of Herisau; the *Basler Nachrichten*, of Basle; the *Lucerner Tagblatt*, of Lucerne; the *Intelligenzblatt*, of Berne; the *Solothurner Tagblatt* and the *Obwaldner Volksfreund*, of Unterwalden; the *Zuger Volksblatt*, of Zug, and the *Gottard Post* and the *Freie Rhätier*, of Glarus.

The *Journal de Genève* is the most influential journal in French. Its political articles are considered particularly strong, and at present

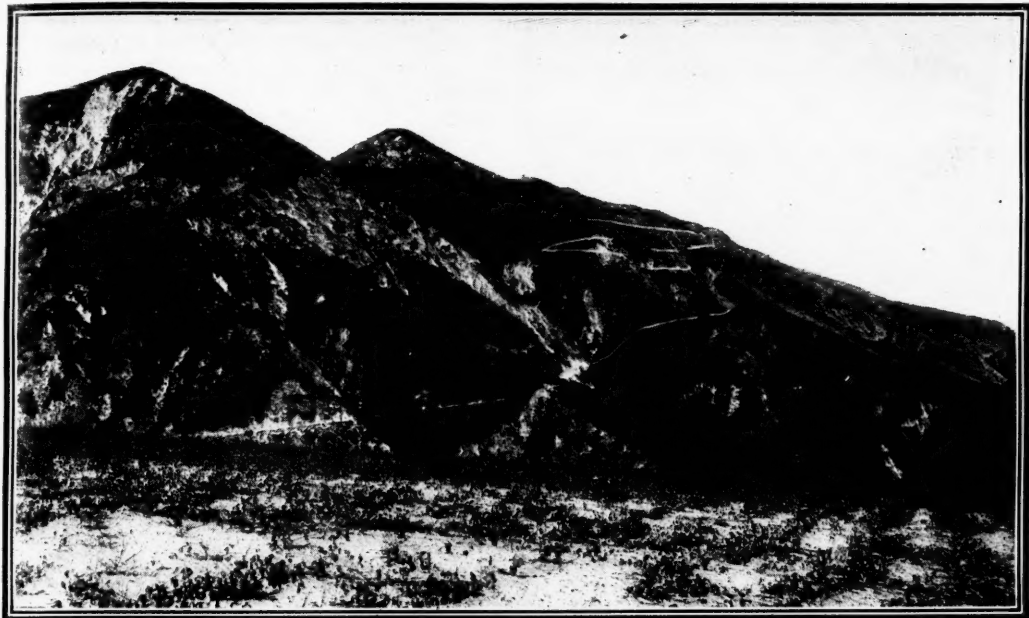
it reflects the proceedings of the Swiss federal council. Other well-known French dailies are: the *National Suisse*, of Chaux de Fonds; the *Jura Bernois*, of St. Imier; the *Nouvelliste Vaudois*, of Lausanne; and the *Liberté*, of Fribourg. Papers of particular interest in commercial matters are: the *Intelligenzblatt*, of Schaffhausen, and the *Handels Kurier*, of Biel. In Samaden is published the *Fögl d'Engiadina*, in the Romanish language. Among the weeklies, the ones best known are the *Aargauisches Wochenblatt*, of Aarau, and the cartoon journal, *Nebelspalter*, of Zurich. There is also an illustrated descriptive fortnightly entitled *Die Schweiz*. The best-known monthly is the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse*, of Lausanne.

Thanks to the absolute freedom of the press in Switzerland, no government censorship existing, there is perhaps a larger number of refugee and anarchist organs published in Switzerland than in any other country. The *Iskra*, organ of the Russian Socialist (Democratic Revolutionary) Labor party, is published in Geneva, and so is the *Razsviet*, another Russian revolutionary organ. In Geneva, also, is published the Italian anarchist revolutionist sheet, the *Risveglio*.



A FEW OF THE BEST-KNOWN PERIODICALS OF SWITZERLAND.

(*Il Dovere* and the *Gazzetta Ticinese* are printed in Italian; the *Gazette de Lausanne*, the *Nouvelliste Vaudois*, the *Suisse Libérale*, and the *Journal de Genève* are printed in French; and the *Bund*, the *Nebelspalter*, and the *Neue Zürcher Zeitung* are printed in German.)



A NEAR VIEW OF THE MOUNT WILSON TRAIL, IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

THE SOLAR OBSERVATORY ON MOUNT WILSON.

BY PAUL P. FOSTER.

THE Solar Observatory of the Carnegie Institution is the newest and loftiest astronomical observatory in the United States. It is situated on the summit of Mount Wilson, in southern California, nearly 6,000 feet above the sea, which is thirty miles away, and is not far distant from the cities of Pasadena and Los Angeles.

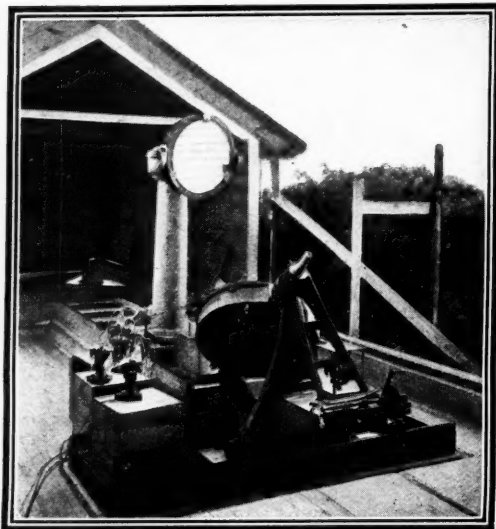
The observatory has been established for the special purpose of studying the sun and the problems of stellar evolution. Its instruments will be employed in making daily computations of the volume of solar radiation, to determine whether changes are taking place in the amount of heat which the earth receives from the sun; while the stars and nebulae will be constantly observed by the most highly developed instruments of modern times. Under the very favorable conditions existing at Mount Wilson, and by the aid of the new and wonderful instruments which modern astronomy is developing, it is expected that great advances will be made in our knowledge of the heavenly bodies.

The importance of the study of solar conditions has long been recognized by astronomers. The sun is the star nearest the earth, the next

nearest of which we have knowledge being 300,000 times more distant. While great improvements have been made in the instruments adapted for solar study, the unfavorable conditions existing at all the older observatories have seriously interfered with the study of the sun, and only one of the twenty-two great refracting telescopes has been regularly employed in solar work.

After long and careful investigation of possible sites, it was found that almost ideal conditions existed at Mount Wilson. Its summit is covered with trees, thus preventing the radiation from the slopes of the mountain present at other elevated observatories; the prevailing atmosphere is clear and calm, and a cloudy or stormy day is a rarity. These considerations led the management of the Carnegie Institution to make a large grant of funds for the establishment of an observatory at Mount Wilson for the study of solar conditions, with adequate provision for its maintenance during at least ten years, the usual length of what is termed "a sun-spot period."

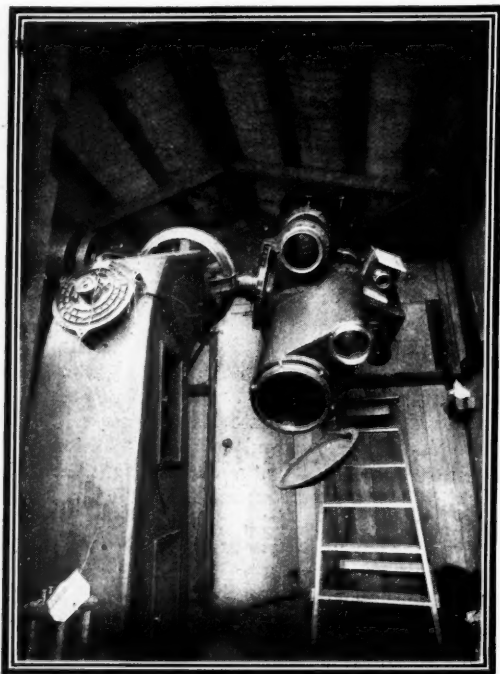
Within the past few months two important telescopes have been located upon Mount Wil-



THE PLANE MIRRORS ON COELOSTAT PIER.

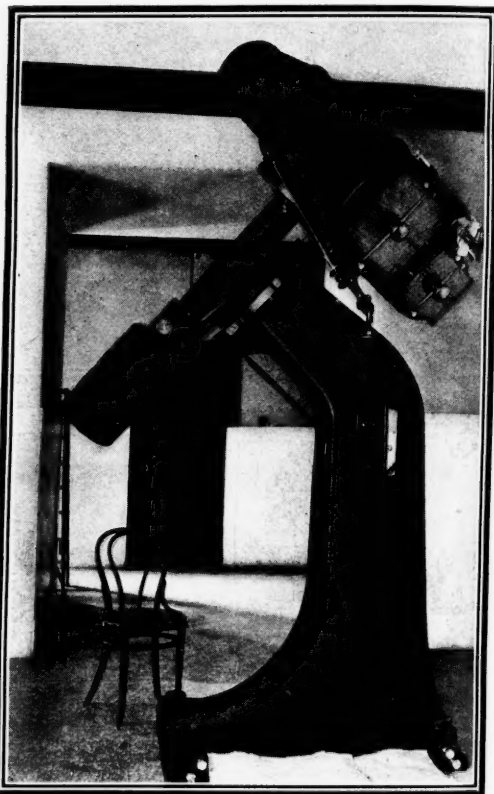
son, a permanent building for the astronomers and staff called "The Monastery" has been erected, and the complete equipment of a modern observatory is rapidly being installed.

The two large telescopes now employed are



THE BRUCE TELESCOPE.

widely different in their construction and purpose. The larger is the Snow telescope, a reflector very unlike the ordinary refracting telescope so familiar to all. This remarkable instrument consists of a series of mirrors arranged on a succession of granite pedestals and housed in a steel framework, over two hundred feet in length, with canvas walls. Steel guy ropes, anchored to large masses of concrete, pre-



THE BRUCE TELESCOPE.

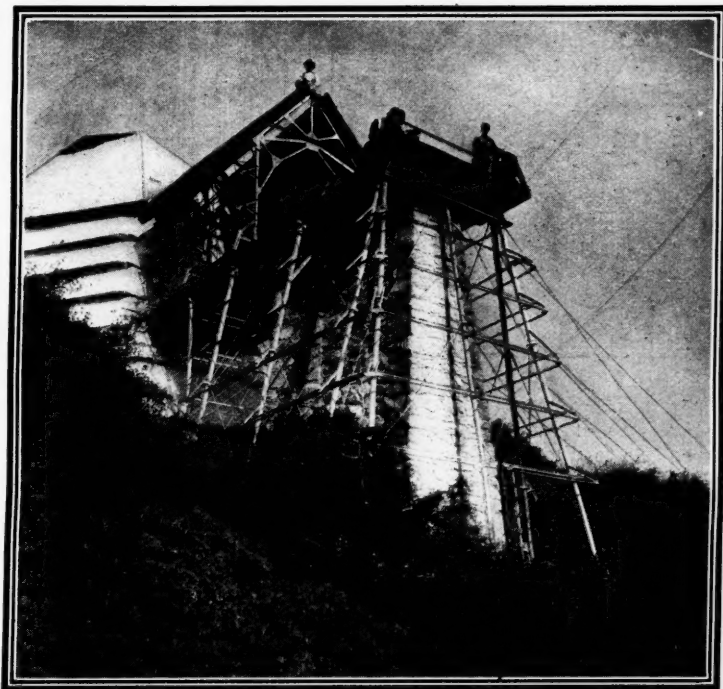
(For photographic work on nebulae and stars.)

vent the structure from being blown over in the gales of winter. The coelostat pier, which is the end containing the plane mirrors, stands on a slope of the mountain, its focal axis being thirty-five feet from the ground. Two plane mirrors receive the sun's rays and reflect them the entire length of the framework upon two great concave mirrors, each two feet in diameter and of different focal lengths, which focus the rays upon screens, producing images of the sun seven and sixteen inches in diameter. In studying these images an instrument called the spectroheliograph is employed, by which

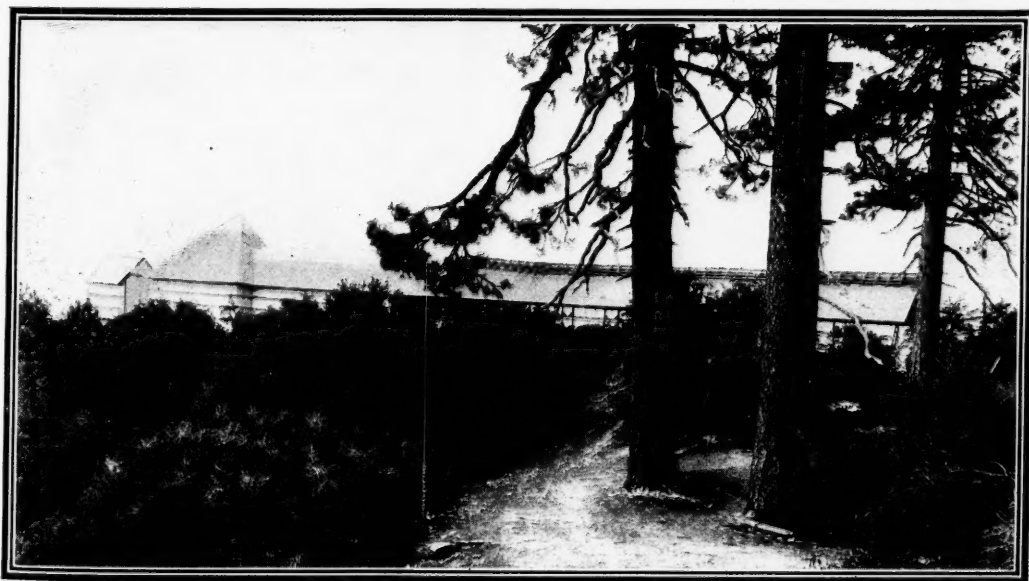
the sun's image can be examined in a selected light and information may be gained regarding the chemical composition of the sun. A five-foot mirror is already being prepared, and will eventually be mounted, when the observatory will be provided with the largest and finest reflector in the world for solar observations.

The other important instrument now in active use is the Bruce photographic telescope, an instrument designed exclusively for the purpose of photographing stars and nebulae. It has a short focus and a wide field, and by its means remarkable photographs of the vast star clouds of the Milky Way have been obtained, which picture those stupendous regions on a relatively large scale and with exquisite definition. The Bruce telescope was completed and erected at the Yerkes Observatory, at Williams Bay, Wis., in 1904, and late in that year was transferred to Mount Wilson, from the lower

latitude of which it is expected to reach portions of the Milky Way unattainable from the latitude of Wisconsin. The more transparent at-



THE SOUTH END OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE HOUSE, SHOWING GREAT COELOSTAT PIER.



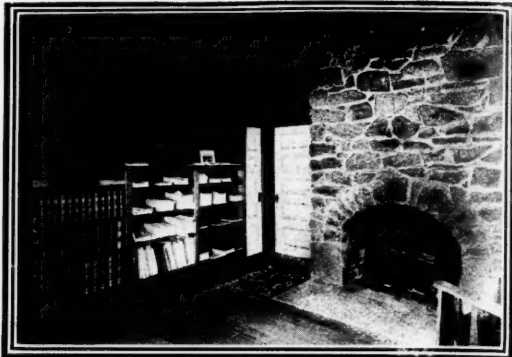
A SIDE VIEW OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE HOUSE.



"THE MONASTERY."

mosphere of Mount Wilson will also make it possible to photograph some of the great diffused nebulosities which are obscured by the denser air at lower levels.

"The Monastery," which contains the offices and quarters of the staff of astronomers and assistants, is an adaptation of the ancient Mission style



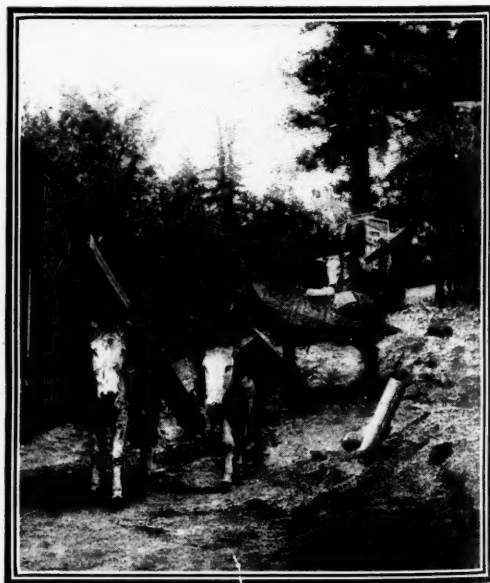
LIBRARY IN "THE MONASTERY."

To transport building materials and equipment up the steep, roadless sides of the mountain was no easy task. It is a fifteen-mile trip to Pasadena, the nearest city, nine miles of this up a steep and narrow trail impassable for ordinary teams. The lighter materials were carried on mule-back, and the heavier portions on a truck, facetiously termed the "mountain automobile," which was designed especially for the purpose. It is constructed of four automobile wheels, twenty-eight inches in diameter, with heavy rubber tires. The wheels are but two feet apart, on account of the narrow trail, and the bed of the truck hangs within six inches of the ground. The truck is provided with steer-



THE SPECIAL CARRIAGE DESIGNED FOR CARRYING HEAVY MACHINERY UP THE TRAIL.

of architecture of California to twentieth-century needs. Each member of the staff has a small bedroom, with a tiny private office or "cell" adjoining, and a large, attractive room whose central feature is a great stone fireplace serves as office, library, and living-room. "The Monastery" commands an extended view of the neighboring mountains and the cities of Pasadena and Los Angeles, with the Pacific Ocean in the distant background.



A PACK TRAIN WITH BUILDING MATERIALS.



A VIEW OF MOUNT WILSON, SHOWING APPARATUS BEING HAULED UP THE TRAIL.

ing-gear for each pair of wheels ; one man leads the single large horse, another manipulates the forward steering-gear, while a third, walking behind, handles the tiller which steers the rear wheels. A thousand pounds can be hauled at a load, and over three hundred tons of materials have been carried up the mountain in this unique manner.

It is the confident opinion of experienced astronomers that the location of this magnificently equipped solar observatory at Mount Wilson, where the prevailing conditions are more favorable than at any other known site, is certain to yield many important results, and to add greatly to our knowledge of the great luminary upon which our earth is so dependent.



A VIEW OF PASADENA AND LOS ANGELES FROM MOUNT WILSON—PASADENA IN FOREGROUND.

THE COMING ECLIPSE OF THE SUN.

BY P. T. M'GRATH.

JUST now Labrador is the Mecca of the scientist and the tourist; for several astronomical expeditions are located there from the United States and Canada, to observe the eclipse of the sun which occurs on the morning of August 30, and to secure all the scientific data obtainable of this stupendous phenomenon, while shiploads of amateur astronomers and sightseeing tourists have been conveyed to the coast,—the former to devote attention to the picturesque rather than the technical details of the affair, and the latter to enjoy a spectacle which is one of the rarest and most sublime that nature vouchsafes to man's astonished gaze.

It is true that the eclipse will also be visible in sections of Europe and Africa, but for the American public the greatest interest will center in Labrador, because of the comparative proximity of the peninsula, the concentration of American scientific effort there, and the development of the tourist-spectator appendage to a purely scientific function, there probably being more non-professional Americans in a position to witness this marvel at a small cost and with little inconvenience than usually happens, particularly as a most interesting country is being seen besides.

The accompanying map shows the path of the eclipse across Labrador, the interior of which being unsettled and the conveyance of equipments there impossible, astronomers have been obliged to establish themselves on the seaboard, though by proceeding up the heads of the inlets the liability to fog or mist is greatly minimized. The shadow-track begins at sunrise near Lake Winnipeg, traverses Labrador south of Hudson Bay—as the map indicates—enters the Atlantic Ocean north of Newfoundland, and crosses the seas to Spain, where it is visible about noon, thence striking across the Mediterranean to Algeria and Tunis, and extending to Egypt and Arabia, where it ends at sunset. The duration of totality in Labrador is two and one-half minutes; in Spain, three and three-quarters minutes; and in Egypt, two and three-fifths minutes. The width of the belt of total eclipse on the earth's surface is 167 miles, the width of the penumbra (partial eclipse) 4,000 miles, and the velocity of the moon's shadow per hour 4,200 miles. Passengers on Atlantic steamers will, according to their position, see the eclipse as total or nearly

total, and the period the eclipse will be in progress, from the time the shadow begins till it ends, will be about two and one-half hours.

THE TRUE SIGNIFICANCE OF A SOLAR ECLIPSE.

A total eclipse of the sun is perhaps the most majestic sight in nature, and one that if seen can never be forgotten. It is so rarely that it occurs under circumstances and in regions favorable to its minute observation by experts that when the conditions promise to be satisfactory astronomers are content to journey to even the most remote parts of the world where the small round black surface of the moon creeps across the surface of the earth. Thus it arose that in 1860 an astronomical party proceeded to the then virtually unknown and unpeopled coast of Labrador to observe a solar eclipse under conditions somewhat similar to those that exist now, having to be transported there by schooner, and having to endure hardships which are, fortunately, not to be feared in the present instance. The last total eclipse in the British Isles occurred as long ago as 1724, and there will not be another till 1927.

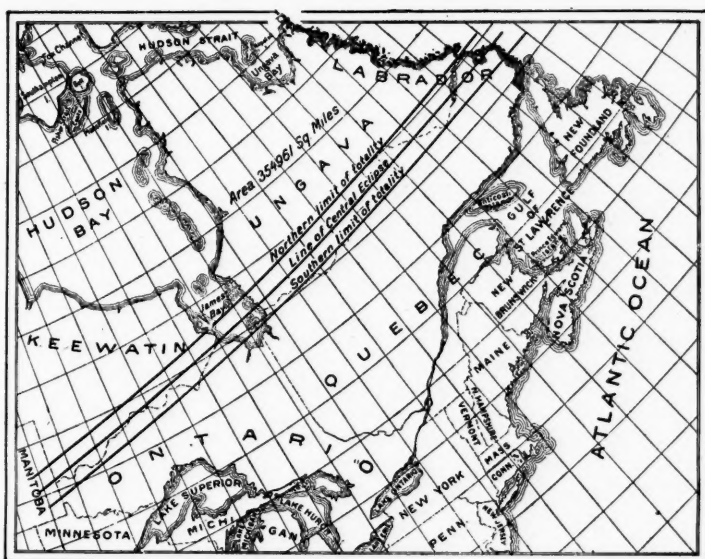
In these days of popular astronomy for the million it seems scarcely necessary to describe at length what a solar eclipse means. Suffice it to say that it is a temporary blanketing of the sun by the moon coming between it and the earth. Both the sun and the moon are of the same apparent size, but at times the moon, in her orbit, seems to be decidedly the larger, and if then the moon passes exactly between the earth and the sun a total solar eclipse ensues and is visible as such at those portions of the earth within the shadow-track, and as a partial eclipse along a broad strip on either side of this.

The shadow thrown on a blank wall by any globular body held between a lighted lamp and the wall is a simple and homely illustration of an eclipse. The shadow will be seen to be much darker in the middle than at the edges, and the former is known scientifically as the umbra, while the lesser haze is termed the penumbra. If the observer now so stations himself that his eye views the globular body from the center of the umbra, the lamp is seen to be entirely hidden, but when viewed from the penumbra part of the lamp, is visible. Such is precisely what happens in a solar eclipse. For two or three

minutes the moon completely hides the sun, and the light of the latter is shut off from the observers on this earth; but because of the distance the three planets are from one another, the shadow of the moon is cast on only a small portion of the earth's surface. Where the eclipse is total, or almost so, the light enjoyed at the greatest phase, or middle of the eclipse, will be similar to that of a bright moonlit night.

The scientific interest in a solar eclipse is not due to the obscuration of the sun, but to the opportunity which this affords of observing the other phenomena to which such an occurrence gives rise during the few minutes that the eclipse lasts, this being the only chance for such observations to be carried on until another eclipse ensues. Although the sun when viewed with the naked eye or through smoked glasses appears as a clear disk of light, and a telescope exhibits a mottled surface known as "sun spots," yet when a total eclipse takes place there is revealed to the observer a glorious halo or corona which forms the outer atmosphere of the sun and which is wholly invisible at ordinary times because the tremendous glare from the central part of the sun overpowers and absorbs this lesser radiance. When the moon totally shuts out the sun there is seen around the black body of the moon this halo or glory of light, brightest near the place of the concealed sun, but fading away outward until lost in the general tint of the sky.

It is the visibility of this corona and the revelation of the details of the chromosphere, as the outer atmosphere is called, that make solar eclipses of such supreme consequence in the eyes of astronomers, and in the eyes of spectators one of the grandest and most striking of astronomical phenomena. The body of the sun under normal conditions presents a brilliant surface known as the photosphere, which radiates to us our light and heat. Above this is a layer of gases known as the reversing layer, which absorbs portions of the sun's light and produces the well-known dark lines in the solar spectrum. At total eclipses, when the disk of the sun is cut off, this layer has been seen to produce a bright line spectrum, showing it to be glowing gas.



MAP SHOWING PATH OF THE SOLAR ECLIPSE, TO TAKE PLACE ON AUGUST 30, 1905.

Above this is a gaseous envelope known as the chromosphere, through which burst great flames of hydrogen and metallic vapors. Then come the remarkable streamers of the corona, frequently extending out three or four million miles from the sun's disk. Too faint to be seen in sunlight, yet as soon as the sun's disk is covered this pale yet striking halo springs into view. Partly shining with its own light, and partly with reflected light, its exact nature is not yet entirely settled. It is remarkable as containing an element not yet found on earth.

EXPEDITIONS OF AMERICAN ASTRONOMERS.

The most important astronomical expedition from the United States is that dispatched by the Lick Observatory, of California. It is headed by Dr. Heber Curtis and Prof. Joel Stebbins, who have an adequate force of assistants. Its location is Cartwright, a Hudson Bay Company's post, in Sandwich Bay, Labrador, about one hundred and fifty miles north of Belle Isle Strait. One of the most important tasks which this expedition undertakes is that of discovering, if possible, the intramercurial planet Vulcan, the existence of which within the solar region has been asserted by some astronomers, though it has never been positively determined. The solar corona is to be photographed by means of four cameras of five inches' aperture and forty feet focus, fed from a coelostat, with a mirror fourteen inches in diameter, and it is hoped that the supposed planet may show itself during

some of these exposures, while spectrographs will be used to obtain a continuous record of changes in the spectrum of the sun's edge at the time of the second and third contacts.

Eight or ten smaller parties of American scientists, operating on their own account, have established themselves at other points along Labrador, that region being regarded as the most likely to give the best results, because of the eclipse occurring at sunrise, the improbability of fog hampering them at the points up the inlets with which the coast is seamed, and the remoteness of the region assuring the observers against interference from any other cause. Abbé Moreau, a famous astronomer of Paris, in a recent magazine article on the subject, expressed a strong preference for Labrador because of these facts, and hence the number of minor expeditions there, though several contingents of European, and two or three of American, astronomers are located in Spain and Egypt.

PLANS OF THE CANADIAN GOVERNMENT.

The Canadian government has sent out on this occasion the first astronomical expedition it has ever equipped. It is in charge of Prof. W. H. King, chief astronomer, with Mr. J. S. Plaskett as his assistant and six members of the Royal Astronomical Society of Canada as observers, while four members of the Greenwich Observatory staff, invited by the Dominion cabinet to participate, have accepted the invitation, the combined party leaving Quebec on the steamer *King Edward* on August 3 for Northwest River, a Hudson Bay Company post in Hamilton Inlet, 60 miles north of Cartwright. Their equipment is very complete, consisting of a three-thousand-dollar coelostat and four cameras for photographic work, and, in addition to these, for spectrographic work, there will be a Brashear three-prism train spectroscope, and also a number of telescopes to be used for visual observations.

The coelostat consists essentially of a plane mirror moved by clockwork at such a rate that the direction of the beam of sunlight reflected from its silvered surface is stationary. The mirror the Canadian observers will use is twenty inches in diameter, and the nearly circular beam from it is to be sent in a horizontal direction into four cameras and three spectroscopes. The cameras, which are chiefly to be used for photographing the corona, have focal lengths of about 6½, 10, 10, and 44 feet, respectively, and they will produce images of the sun of about ⅔, 1½, 1½, and 5 inches, respectively.

The sublime spectacle of a total solar eclipse is constituted by the gradual mysterious blotting out of the orb of day, the increasing gloom, the

weird atmospheric effects, the darkening of the sky until the planets and stars appear, and then the sun vanishes absolutely, while at the same moment the corona is revealed in all its splendor, its dazzling fires streaming outward for a brief space like the aurora borealis magnified and intensified a thousandfold, and then vanishing again as suddenly. The non-professional observer, who is free to watch the general effects that attend a solar eclipse, obtains a far better idea of it as a spectacle than does the astronomer, who has to devote his whole attention to one particular feature and misses the grandeur of the display as a whole. However, in view of the fact that complete sets of cinematograph views of the eclipse are to be taken in the present instance, it will probably be possible for everybody to witness a reproduction of the phenomena in a few months in music halls and theaters.

EXPLORING LABRADOR.

Availing himself of the scientific interest thus developed with regard to Labrador this summer, Sir William MacGregor, the distinguished explorer of New Guinea, who won the Founders' Medal of the Royal Geographical Society for his researches in the interior of that previously untraveled region, and who is now governor of Newfoundland, has organized an independent expedition to determine the longitude of the principal points on that coast, fixing the position of the stations occupied by scientific parties observing the eclipse, and himself carrying on important astronomical, meteorological, and tidal observations.

Between the mass of scientific data accumulated by the observers of the eclipse, who will be there for some weeks before that special phenomenon occurs and will be devoting themselves to other subjects in the meantime, and the comprehensive investigations of Sir William MacGregor's party, the world's knowledge of Labrador is likely to be substantially enlarged and a number of scientific problems arising with respect to it disposed of for all time.

As regards the eclipse, the only disappointment for the astronomers and other watchers will be if the sky be veiled by fog, cloud, or storm. In such a case, the observing of the corona would not be possible with any prospects of success, but remarkable atmospheric effects are always observable. People in northern areas, where it will appear as a partial eclipse, will see the sun in the curious form of a crescent, varying in size according to the locality where it is observed being near to or remote from the path of the total eclipse.

PROGRESS OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION.

BY E. J. DILLON.

[Dr. Dillon writes from first-hand knowledge and after several years' residence in the Russian capital.]

THE other day a prominent American citizen inquired of a Russian friend whom he unexpectedly came across in Paris how the Czarism was progressing after the reforms. "What reforms?" asked the Muscovite, brusquely. "Why, all the improvements announced by Nicholas II. about which we have been reading during the past twelvemonth or more. They were ushered in by a public statement from the throne to the effect that the whole system of government was rotten, that the administration must at all costs be transformed, and that the Czar had a plan for regenerating it. That was the promise, and unless the press of the United States and Europe was greatly mistaken, the fulfillment began soon afterward. I certainly read of one imperial commission appointed to give to labor what is due to labor, of another to satisfy the pressing needs of the peasants, of a third to curtail the arbitrary power wielded by officials; and it is matter of common knowledge that soon afterward his majesty himself proclaimed liberty of conscience in his dominions and promised to convoke a representative assembly. Are not these measures worthy to be called reforms? If not, what do you term them?" The Czar's subject made answer: "They are words, not deeds; the tinsel of promise, not the gold of achievement."

And he then went on to say: "I am reminded of a curious conversation which took place many years ago between a foreigner and one of our provincial governors,—a most capricious tyrant, wont to flog, imprison, and banish his peasants without rhyme or reason, ruth or fear. The Frenchman whom he had invited to spend a fortnight with him was horrified on the very first day of his sojourn by the utter contempt of justice and humanity which the official displayed vaingloriously. 'But am I to understand, then, that you have no laws at all in the empire?' the republican asked, in amazement. 'Laws, indeed,' the governor repeated, contemptuously. 'Why, man, we have over eighty folio volumes of them! You won't easily beat that record, *mon ami*. Believe me, we take the lead of the world in the matter of laws.' Well, the reforms of which you speak thus feelingly are not even in so advanced a stage as were the contents of those eighty-odd volumes.

As yet they are not entered in any statute book, but only written—as our people picturesquely put it—with a pitchfork on the waters of the ocean."

WHY REFORMS ARE IMPOSSIBLE.

Six paces forward and half-a-dozen backward would seem to be the rule followed by Russian officials in the work of administrative regeneration. They cannot with truth be accused of idleness, for they are all the time moving; but neither have they made any progress. Every measure that comes to them to be fashioned into an instrument of reform is cast into their mill and rendered blunt and useless. And the Czar, who probably knows that this is so and that they cannot act otherwise, sees no way to charge any but them with the execution of his reforms. The consequences are what we behold. Naturally, the people, who see through this jugglery, have lost hope. They feel that they are confronted with a system which has gone wrong so radically that it can only be ended, not mended. Most of the concessions announced by Nicholas II. are at bottom orders issued to the bureaucracy to lay down part of their own power and abolish their own prerogatives. But as these prerogatives are also of the essence of the autocracy, and as the Emperor puts the maintenance of the autocracy above everything else, his officials calmly proceed to strangle these innovations in the germ. In every case, moreover, they are sure of the approval of their imperial master. It is in this duality of promise and achievement that we shall find the clue to the present internal condition of Russia. For the autocracy is in reality the bureaucracy, and the bureaucracy is synonymous with corruption, injustice, ignorance. Hence, when Nicholas II. recently addressed his people, acknowledging the truth of their complaints and the justice of their demands, and solacing them with the prospect of reforms, he was virtually asking his *chinovniks* (officials) who are responsible for the abuses complained of to divest themselves of their power,—to commit political *hara-kiri*. And even they are human.

The story of imperial concessions is for these reasons puzzling to foreigners, irritating to Russian Liberals, and comforting to Russian bureaucrats. It is a record of misleading statements, of broken promises, and of the triumph of use and

wont over progress and efficiency. Thus, the Czar solemnly agreed to give his people a representative assembly; but his ministers, with his consent, refused to say when or how they would carry out this promise, and they even punished the simple-minded who took it seriously. More depressing still is the circumstance that almost every step taken by the authorities since then betokens a tendency bitterly hostile to representative government. Recently, for example, the Czar called upon his subjects to assist him with their advice, and for this purpose expressly permitted them, in his ukase of March 3 to the Senate, to discuss the ways and means of convening a representative chamber. Yet in his majesty's name the authorities are now prosecuting communal bodies and individual peasants for having availed themselves of that permission. In like manner, the Emperor undertook to widen the basis of national education. A few days later, however, his minister narrowed it considerably, and deprived the national school-teachers of some of the scanty rights which they had theretofore enjoyed. Again, Nicholas II. adjured the Russian press to defend the cause of truth and to help him with frank advice. Yet the newspapers have ever since been forbidden to publish facts about workmen's strikes, about troubles in rural districts, about most of the burning topics of the day, while every number of the organ of the zemstvos has been confiscated by the police. All this was done by way of preparing the nation for a constitutional régime. And on the very eve of introducing popular representative institutions into the country his majesty appointed General Trepov to be dictator, with power to disregard statutes and override the law.

IS LIBERTY OF CONSCIENCE A DELUSION?

The most welcome of all the concessions emanating from the throne was that which Nicholas II. bestowed upon his subjects last Easter Sunday. Inspired and drafted by M. Witte, it was at first spoken of as liberty of conscience, but was soon afterward seen to amount to nothing more than religious toleration. And since then the bureaucracy has touched and killed it. For instance, the Czar had authorized his Orthodox subjects to leave the State Church with impunity if their conscience prompt them. His bureaucrats, however, resolved to nullify this right, while appearing to respect it. Taking a leaf from the book of *Portia*, who circumvented *Shylock*, they have allowed Orthodox Russians to preserve this right on condition that they do not really exercise it. "You may leave Orthodoxy, but you must not conspire with the clergy-

men of any other church in order to do so," is what they virtually say. And this is how it works out: A member of the Russian State Church can, if he will, become a Protestant. But if the Lutheran pastor help him,—and without such help he cannot effect his purpose,—the clergyman will be prosecuted and punished, and the would-be convert will be severely dealt with as a witness, a status which in Russia may be rendered quite as bad as that of prisoner. Priest and convert, therefore, are both in danger. It is like telling a man that he may travel from New York to Buffalo on condition that he do not pass through all the intermediate space. And that is the tenor of a circular which has been issued on the subject by the governor-general of Warsaw, Maximovitch, to his subordinates. No person may induce or abet a member of the Orthodox Church to enter any other fold, for that is a crime.

The head of the Holy Synod, M. Pobyedonostzev, is alarmed at the exodus of Christian men and women from the true fold and is eager to check it. For the movement will inflict material as well as spiritual damage on the State Church. Hitherto, for example, the Orthodox clergy were well paid in hush-money for not denouncing the Old Believers, whose every act of worship was in certain districts a misdemeanor. Now, the new edict, if loyally carried out, would render their religious worship legal, and would free them from the necessity of buying the connivance of priests of the Established Church. And the priests would, in consequence, lose that source of income. That is an additional reason why the operation of the imperial ukase should be secretly counteracted.

Or take another instance: The Old Believers' temples, shut up for years by orders of the authorities, were solemnly opened after the edict of Easter Sunday. The government was represented at the ceremony by Prince Galitzin and Count Sheremetiev, who gave the Old Believers the "friendly counsel" not to allow their bishops to officiate the first time. That advice was followed. A few days later, the curators of the "emancipated" Church were summoned to the police prefecture and compelled to sign a written undertaking which is believed to be a "voluntary" renunciation of certain of the rights conceded by the Czar. Quite "voluntary," of course, for the Czar may not be accused of taking away what he spontaneously gave. At any rate, the bishops of the Old Believers have never yet discharged their functions in public, although their congregations ardently desire them to do so. They have the right, but they dare not exercise it.

A number of Stundists, or evangelical Christians, have been prosecuted for singing hymns and offering up prayers since the promulgation of the Czar's ukase, which permits them to do this. Naturally, they pleaded the authorization granted them by his majesty. But their superior, the Zemski Nachalnik, forbade them to make any allusion to that document in their pleadings,—because “officially it has not been received.”* Therefore, they have committed a crime for which there is no excuse!

It seems as though religious toleration were meant merely to look well on paper, like the eighty-odd volumes of Russian laws and so much else in Muscovy. It has not formally been rejected by the bureaucrats, but only postponed *sine die*. The officials concerned explain the matter in this ingenious way: “The people misunderstood the imperial ukase, which really did not frame any new law. It only stated generally that recommendations on the subject must be made by the ministers of the Council of the Empire without delay. It does not add that the Council of the Empire must indorse those recommendations. Nor could it mean any such thing, for otherwise it would have been superfluous to make recommendations. The whole question has now been handed over to a new commission, under the chairmanship of Count Ignatieff, and next autumn or winter the views of this body will be duly laid before the ministerial departments . . .”† Meanwhile, things are as they were.

All these reform conferences and commissions, which are so generally misunderstood, are working, but they never manage to carry any measure of reform beyond the stage of a council chamber. Twenty of them now meet and talk and print and publish their views, and will then vanish into space, leaving things as they were. Meanwhile, the grip of the police on the people is gradually tightening. This may possibly be the government's way of ushering in a liberal régime, but the masses cannot see it in that light.

WANTED—A GENEVA CONVENTION FOR CIVIL WAR.

The aim of the autocracy is one and the same,—self-preservation. But its tactics have varied of late. At first it relied upon the army and navy to divert by their victories the attention of the masses and to curb the presumption of the few. Kuropatkin's successes would thus have been the Autocrat's triumph. But the Czar's admirals and generals proving broken reeds, the autocracy had to face the nation and

fight its battle at home. And the methods by which the struggle is now being waged make one regret that there is no human code binding on both parties in this civil war. Devices and deeds which would provoke an outburst of indignation if resorted to by one belligerent against another are approved or connived at when employed in the duel between an absolute government and its unarmed subjects.

The opposition in Russia may be roughly divided into two classes: the elements of the population who take a real interest in reform,—mostly “intellectuals,” whose mind is their fortune,—and the people of means who indulge in political principles by fits and starts. Of these, the former are suppressed without superfluous ruth by the police or the soldiers, while the latter are harassed and attacked by organized “hooligans” in the hope that, stricken with fear, they may beseech the authorities to protect them by force. For the rulers of Russia fancy that if one section of the population were arrayed against the other the problem of how to preserve the autocracy would be solved. Hence, a mysterious force is constantly and methodically at work egging on one element of the nation against another, instigating to robbery, arson, and murder in leaflets and proclamations printed by government institutions and spread by paid servants of the autocracy.

The existence of this secret conclave was first clearly revealed when the bureaucracy shifted the blame for disasters of its own making to the shoulders of the friends of reform, when high dignitaries of Church and State accused the “intellectuals” and the workingmen of having sold their country to Japan. It is noteworthy that this cruel and cowardly accusation was countenanced by the imperial government and indorsed by the Most Holy Synod. But it damaged only those who invented it. After that a secret committee of reactionaries was organized to thwart the reforms outlined by the Czar. It issued instructions to governors, general governors, and police prefects, inspired influential press organs, and generally kindled the consuming zeal of the police. Thus, the *Government Gazette*, of Kazan, published inflammatory articles and proclamations asking its readers to make short work of the domestic foe,—that is, of all that is most honest, intelligent, and progressive in Russian society.* Here is a sample of these proclamations to peasants, workingmen, and tradesmen:

An attempt to upset our empire is being made by lawyers, professors, students, schoolmasters, bankrupt

* Cf. *Nasha Zhizn*, June 21, 1905.

† *Peterburgskaya Gazeta*, June 17, 1905.

* *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, June 16, 1905.

landlords, rich merchants, and other gentlemen who term themselves "the intelligence." These persons want to oust the Czar and wield his power, and for this purpose they are fomenting disorder and troubles. The professors have agreed neither to teach nor to learn; the lawyers—useless chatterboxes—impudently demand a constitution; the school children of various towns, egged on by their parents, instead of learning their lessons march with banners through the streets and cry, "Away with the Czar!" Hand-in-hand with the squires are the Jewish, Polish, and Armenian "intellectuals," who also clamor for a constitution, that they may lord it over us Russians. Allied with the Jews and other foreign peoples, the "intellectuals" hope to weaken the Emperor and seize the state treasury. *Yielding to these "intellectuals," the Czar has already resolved to summon elected representatives, but the gentlefolk insist on being themselves chosen in lieu of peasants and petty tradesmen. . . . If the gentlefolk, thanks to their wiles and violence, should succeed, do not recognize them, brothers, as the governing power, but tear them to pieces and show that it is you who are the power in the empire.*

A clear and simple behest, but of questionable efficacy. Even if the autocracy were the noblest institution known to man, its maintenance would be dear at the price of such wanton mischief-making. Already these deeds have borne bitter fruit, and in the shape of mutiny and massacre are recoiling upon those who countenanced them.

BY ITS FRUITS YE SHALL KNOW IT.

One result of this system was that in the Caucasus the Tatars and the Armenians,—two nationalities which had lived for ages in peace and friendship and were linked together by innumerable bonds,—suddenly became sworn foes and sought to blow each other's brains out. There was no economic struggle, no religious feud, to account for this curious outburst. According to the Russian press, the blood-bath of Baku was carefully organized beforehand. "At present, nobody has any doubt that the deeds done in Baku were prearranged, and that the late Governor Nakashidze was aware of the impending mass-murders there."*

The police are said to have hired Tatar cutthroats in the outlying villages and to have inflamed their fanaticism with promises of loot. The butchery then perpetrated at Baku was followed by sickening scenes of blood in Nakhichevan and Erivan. And here, too, the authorities winked at the murders when they did not actually incite them. No troops were employed until a large number of Armenians had been killed, their property looted, and their houses burned down. And when it became necessary to stop the killing in the Nakhichevan District, troops were summoned, not from Kars

or Alexandropol (the nearest places), but from Tiflis (which was very much farther off), and even then they were not forwarded by rail. The only occasion when the troops interfered was when in Erivan it had become clear that the Armenians were so well able to defend themselves that if the skirmish continued the Tatars would suffer serious losses! * Then the Christians were violently disarmed. Yet Erivan is in Russia, not in Turkey.

The power which thus wantonly sheds innocent blood cannot, Russian Liberals argue, have any hold on the people. What puzzles the foreign friends of the autocracy is that for robbery, riot, arson, and murder committed under the influence of this hidden committee there is no punishment, no responsibility. A word from the Autocrat would, they say, put an end to the iniquitous system. It would chill the malignant ardor of governors and police prefects, deter the reactionary press from fomenting civil war, and keep the priests from preaching race hatred to the masses. Probably it would. But that earnest word has not been uttered. Far from it, some of the men who were prominent in organizing the carnage of Armenians, Jews, and "intellectuals" have been ostentatiously honored or substantially rewarded.

The recent ordeals of the Jews in Kishinev, Jitomir, and other towns were worse than those through which the Armenians passed. And they, too, appear to have been prearranged. Some of the cutthroats of Jitomir arrested by a band of armed Jews pleaded that they had been hired by the police in Moscow and sent off to the scene of action. They were therefore promoting the cause of the Czar; and that was enough for them and their likes. They knew not what they did. One of the chief instigators of the massacre of the Jews in Kishinev was Krushevan, the editor of the journal *Bessarabetz*. It was hoped, when his complicity was proven, that the authorities would seriously punish him, but what they did was to induce the Czar to receive him in audience. And his horn was exalted exceedingly.

Why, it is asked, are the governors not reprimanded, not warned, not interfered with in any way? Obviously because they are doing the will of their imperial master, answer the Liberals. Only in one case,—that of the Kishinev butchery,—was the governor transferred to another province. Not punished; only removed, and even that for his own safety. The governor of Jitomir kept out of sight while the slaughter was going on, and after it was over he told a

* *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, June 16, 1905.

* *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, June 16, 1905.

deputation of Jews that they had themselves to blame for their sufferings because they had treasonably used the Czar's portrait as a target. This was a cruel calumny, and the Jews forced the governor to admit it. But it was lost labor. The whole system of governing by means of dissensions, the Liberals affirm, might be summarily ended by the Emperor. Peter the Great had no hesitation about punishing provincial satraps. Once, when he convinced himself that the governor of a Siberian province was guilty of peculation, he had him hanged before the Senate house as a warning to others.

But not only has Peter the Great been dead for ages, but his spirit, too, has vanished. Certainly, he would have given short shrift to the autocratic senior doctor of the asylum of Kremenchug, who, stamping angrily, a few days ago, shouted, "Let every Jew in this hospital begone at once!" "Whereupon," says the local journal,* "the hospital attendants set about executing the order. In a twinkling, in the court of the hospital appeared the pallets on which lay the Jewish patients, their features distorted with fear and horror. They were the sufferers who could not rise from their beds. As for the convalescents, they had already been driven out of the hospital with nothing on but their linen. To some of them the attendants gave an old garment to enable them to get home. Among the patients were many women."† Yet the co-religionists of that fiery physician have missions in Japan where the yellowskins are taught to love their enemies.

This sowing of race hatred, it should be noted, followed upon the Czar's express desire that legality should be substituted for injustice. Better treatment for the non-Russian races and religions was announced by the monarch, after which they were incited to cut one another's throats by the monarch's trusty servants. It is to these servants that his majesty still continues to refer all men of noble thought and humane feeling who ask that the Augean stable may at last be thoroughly cleansed. A Russian friend of mine recently commented upon this aspect of the situation in some such words as these: "It is as though a gambling hell were to be turned into an ecclesiastical seminary. The change is, of course, feasible if you drive out the gamblers and usher in divines. But not if you beg the card-sharpers to stay and transform the haunt of vice into a seed-plot of virtue. Well, that is a fair picture of the position of our government and the bureaucracy. Can the people

be blamed for putting their hopes in other methods? The revolution from above is inconceivable."

There are no grounds for assuming that the promise of a representative chamber will fare better than the other reforms, and there are many for believing that it will be speedily explained away. In sooth, it was doomed from the first. Its birth was the result of a painful Cæsarean operation, and its nurse, M. Bulyghin, is a man who, honest enough in his way, is disposed to strangle all popular institutions without exception. The scheme he devised for dealing with popular representation was in harmony with his convictions. The delegates to the assembly are to be chosen by each class apart; the chamber will have no authority to discuss the affairs of the imperial family, the civil list, the imperial domains, the army, the navy, or matters of diplomacy, and it will be split into a number of petty committees. A river losing itself in the sand of a vast desert is the image that comes to one's mind. The ministers will be answerable to the Czar, and only to him. But more decisive still is the right which the monarch will retain of making laws by ukases independently of everybody, even of his professional advisers. He draws up a ukase, publishes it, and his will becomes law forthwith to one hundred and forty millions. Appeal is impossible, and criticism punishable. All the crying abuses, therefore, which provoked and justified the demand for representative institutions could go on as before, unchecked and irrepressible. Certainly, the assembly would be powerless to stop them.

All this was foreseen and resented by the leaders of the popular party. They consequently summoned a zemsky congress in Moscow and drew up an urgent address to the Czar warning him that the empire and his throne were in danger. Nicholas II. graciously agreed to receive them in his palace and have a friendly talk with them. And he listened attentively to the speech of Prince Troubetskoi, who at that very moment was a "criminal," as crime is defined in the autocracy. Curiously enough, the prince's crime was that he had written what the Czar thanked him for saying.

In the nation's name, Prince Troubetskoi informed the monarch of the people's misgivings. "They fear," he said, "that the national chamber might be split into classes, might represent one nationality only, might be an ornament of the old fabric instead of the groundwork of a new one." To which the Emperor cheerily replied: "Cast away your misgivings," and then went on to promise that the scheme should be carried out

*The Dnieper District Gazette.

†*Syn Otechestra*, June 25, 1905.

properly. He would be true to the spirit as well as to the letter of his undertaking. Great was the joy of the Russian press when these tidings were brought. Some journals called June 19 the most memorable date in Russian history. Even Prince Troubetskoi himself thought he could catch a glimpse of the new era of which it was the gray dawn.

Within forty-eight hours the Czar's trusty ministers, in their imperial master's name and with his hearty assent, told the Russian people that the words of Nicholas II. had been misinterpreted. The Czar and his people have thus ceased to understand each other. They speak different tongues, live on different planes. Nothing that he had said betokened a change in the autocracy. That God-given institution shall not and cannot be modified. When his majesty exhorted the nation to cast away its doubts he did not mean the doubts expressed by the spokesman of the nation. He meant something else. Therefore, it behooves the nation to cherish no dangerous illusions founded on a misunderstanding. That was the gist of the explanation given by the bureaucrats. What it amounts to is that reform—as the nation understands it is not to be expected from above. Wrested it may be; it will not be bestowed.

THE BUREAUCRACY RESPONSIBLE.

That Nicholas II. and his people no longer understand each other is now become distressingly clear in Russia,—is, indeed, one of the central facts of the situation there. And the practical consequences emanating from it are in sober truth alarming. Anarchy and violence have usurped the place of law and order; respect for property and for life has largely disappeared; class is turned against class, race against race, and civil war in its worst aspects appears to have broken out in various districts simultaneously. The mutiny of the crew of the battleship *Kniaz Potemkin*; the revolt of the blue-jackets in Libau; the barricades in Łódź, with their hillocks of dead and dying,—are symptoms which he who runs may read. The beginnings of this social avalanche can be traced to the deliberate action of mischief-making government agents.

The zemstvo delegates now intend, it is said, respectfully to request his majesty to convoke a representative assembly within the next five or six weeks, and if their request be not complied with to form provisional boards of government for the provinces. That move would probably turn the scales by giving the Liberals of all Russia a living center around which to rally. The resolution in question is alleged to have

been provoked by an attempt at further mobilization. That the autocracy is still ready to sacrifice Russian lives, if not for the control of the Pacific, at least for a partial victory over the Japanese, is an open secret. It is but a few days since the official financial paper demonstrated to its own satisfaction that in a few months Japan will be bankrupt. Why not carry on the war until then? The nation's answer is audible in the crackling of rifles, the bursting of explosives, the din of civil war. The pity of it all is that the autocracy, which is compromised, gibbeted, and held up to universal opprobrium for upholding the régime by fomenting civil war, can win nothing by success, while it stands to lose all in case of failure. It is really risking its existence for the bureaucracy.

A FORECAST OF THE STRUGGLE.

Were it not the essence of rashness to forecast the upshot of the struggle between the autocracy and the nation, I should confess to a belief that absolutism will disappear before a coalition of all the intelligent classes at home and of the two great island powers abroad. Coercion in Russia and expansion in Asia are the characteristic accompaniments of the autocracy. Now the joint effort of all the articulate classes of the Czardom, employing strikes and other forms of passive, and, unhappily, also active, resistance as weapons, may ultimately succeed in substituting constitutional government for one-man rule. But how and at what cost, one prefers not to think. But if it fail, foreign powers will achieve the feat indirectly.

For, turning to the policy of aggrandizement, which hitherto kept the civilized world in a state of almost continuous alarm, I have little hesitation in affirming that that element of periodic disorder will be entirely got rid of by the coming treaty between Japan and Great Britain, which must, and therefore will, guarantee the peace of all Asia. Any attempted modification of the *status quo* in that continent—as it will have shaped itself after the Washington treaty between the two belligerents—will be regarded by England and Japan as a *casus belli*, and will be hindered by the joint action of the allies. And this consummation, now quite certain, will, I believe, give such an impetus to the endeavors of the reform party in Russia that the autocracy cannot long withstand them. For absolutism at home is inconceivable without a forward policy abroad. As the one is doomed to go within the year,—soon after the Anglo-Japanese alliance has been extended,—the other will surely follow at no great interval, unless, indeed, it have gone before.

HUNGARY'S SIDE IN THE CRISIS WITH AUSTRIA.

BY COUNT ALBERT APPONYI.

(Member of the Hague Court, and for over thirty years an elected member of the Hungarian Parliament.)

THE April issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS contained an article on the Austro-Hungarian crisis by Dr. Baumfeld, whom I have the pleasure of knowing as a gentleman of high culture and animated by the best intentions. He approaches this problem, however, blinded by a conception which makes it impossible for him truly to understand or explain it to others.

In Dr. Baumfeld's article, in his mind, in the mind of almost all Austrians, the dominating idea is that of an "Austrian" empire (which they are kind enough to call an "Austro-Hungarian" empire), of which Hungary is a part, endowed with a large amount of home rule, but still a part. To this territorial idea corresponds an Austrian emperor, or,—as Dr. Baumfeld calls him,—an "Austro-Hungarian emperor," who rules all his domains, Hungary included, by this imperial sovereignty, which is understood to contain the sovereignty of the King of Hungary, the time-hallowed holy crown of St. Stephen being degraded into one of the gems adorning that comparatively modern imperial diadem.

Now, this is the very idea to which Hungary will never become reconciled; against which she has struggled—in the main, successfully—through four eventful centuries, the solemn denial of which is inserted in many of our fundamental laws,—laws which are part of that constitution which every king binds himself by his coronation oath to observe and to maintain.

The writer had the honor of delivering at St. Louis, at the Arts and Science Congress of last year, a short historical account of our relation with the Austrian dynasty. There are to be found the chief facts, which show: (1) That our forefathers called that dynasty to the Hungarian throne, not in order to get Hungary absorbed into an Austrian or any other sort of empire, but, on the contrary, under the express condition of keeping the independence and the constitution of the Hungarian kingdom unimpaired; (2) that this condition has been accepted and sworn to by all those members of the dynasty (Joseph II. alone excepted) who ascended the Hungarian throne; (3) that, nevertheless, practical encroachments on our independence, followed by conflicts and reconciliations, have been at all epochs frequent; (4) but that a juridical

fact never occurred which could be construed into a modification of that fundamental condition of the dynasty's title in Hungary.

The famous Pragmatic Sanction of 1723, while reasserting in the strongest terms the independence of Hungary, created an identical order of succession to the Austrian and to the Hungarian thrones. It stated at the same time the duty of mutual defense against foreign aggression for both countries. The so-called Compromise (*Ausgleich*) of 1867 created new forms for the fulfillment of that duty by confiding some foreign and some military matters to common executive agents under the control of select committees elected by both parliaments. But by neither of these transactions, both emanating from Hungary's sovereign free will, did we abdicate any portion of our independence and sovereignty as a free nation. If the Compromise of 1867 seems to be on the eve of breaking down; if many Hungarian politicians who held by it for nearly forty years have now, like myself, thrown over allegiance to it; if its crisis is at present shaking the dual monarchy to its very foundations; all this comes about precisely because that before-mentioned bias of the Austrian mind exerted itself during this whole epoch to distort the enactments of that compromise into some sort of realization of the unified Austrian empire (the idea of which is not rendered more palatable by calling it "Austro-Hungarian"), because "common" institutions, the idea of which is quite compatible with the independence of the parties concerned, were distorted into "imperial" institutions, which means a flat denial of that same independence.

Dr. Baumfeld astonishes me when he states that Austria and Hungary together are called the "Austro-Hungarian Empire." Does he consider such an error of nomenclature as a mere trifle which may do for American readers, as it makes things shorter to explain in the Austrian sense? In truth, not even diplomatic language, though not yet brought into perfect conformity with our public law, blunders so severely as that. It never uses the term "Austro-Hungarian Empire," but only "Austro-Hungarian monarchy." The difference is plain. "Empire" means an objective unity; "monarchy"

implies only the fact that the two countries are ruled by one monarch. But even this term, though less offensive, is to some extent misleading. The physical person of the ruler is, in truth, the same in both countries, but the juridical personality of the King of Hungary is distinct and, as to the contents of its prerogative, widely different from the juridical personality of the Emperor of Austria. Hungary is the oldest constitutional country on the European Continent. The royal prerogative in her case is an emanation of the constitution,—not prior to it,—and consists in such rights as the nation has thought fit to vest in her king. In Austria, on the other hand, the existing constitution is a free gift of the Emperor, and has conferred on the people of Austria such rights as the Emperor has thought fit to grant to them. The title of "Emperor of Austria-Hungary," which Dr. Baumfeld once uses in his text, is—he will excuse my saying so—simply nonsense. The time-hallowed old Hungarian crown has not been melted into the brand-new Austrian imperial diadem. That imperial title does not contain, to any extent, the Hungarian royal title. The Emperor of Austria, as such, has just as much legal power in Hungary as the President of the United States has. He is, juridically speaking, a foreign potentate to us.

On these fundamental truths, no Hungarian—to whatever party he may belong—admits discussion. It is because the opposite erroneous views, so clearly apparent in Dr. Baumfeld's article, have been constantly smuggled into the daily practice of our common institutions that the country has lost its faith in the Compromise of 1867, and no state of constant tranquillity can prevail in the dual monarchy.

The Liberal party, vanquished at the last elections, does not in the least differ from the victorious opposition as to the principles laid down in these pages; it only advocated a greater amount of forbearance, against the petty encroachments which practically obscured them. That policy of forbearance became gradually distasteful to the country; seeing it shaken in the public mind, the recent prime minister, Count Tisza, formed the unhappy idea of gaining a new lease of power on its behalf by a parliamentary *coup d'état*. The rules of the House were broken, in order to prevent future obstruction, chiefly against military bills. This brought matters to an acute crisis. The parliament in which that breach of the rules had taken place became unfit for work of any sort, the country had to be consulted, and down went the Liberal party and the half-hearted policy it represented with no hope for revival.

The army question, with its ever-recurring difficulties, is a highly characteristic feature of the chronic latent conflict between the Austrian and the Hungarian mentality. It amounts to this, that, as we are a nation, we mean to have an armed force corresponding to our national individuality, commanded in our language, and serving under our flags and emblems. It would be unnatural for any nation, and would be, in fact, an abdication of the title of "nation," to renounce such a national claim. The Austrians, on the other hand,—and, unhappily, their influence is still prevalent in this question,—not yet having abandoned the idea of a pan-Austrian empire, uncompromisingly adhere to the present military organization, which makes the German language and the imperial emblems prevalent throughout the whole army, its Hungarian portion included. Behind a thin veil of argument drawn from considerations of military expediency, which Dr. Baumfeld seems to think unanswerable, but which to us appear rather childish, it is the last stronghold of pan-Austrian imperialism which we have before us in that military *statu quo*, which, for that very reason, is as unacceptable to us as it is hard to conquer. The present majority in the Hungarian Parliament insists, therefore, on a thoroughgoing military reform in a national sense. The King, on the other hand, inspired by the traditions of his dynasty, is averse to any serious change in military matters. This is the reason why the crisis is still pending, and why no ministry taken from the majority has yet been formed.

The Hungarian people feel confident of the future. We must prevail, because we only want our rights without infringing on the rights of any one else; while our opponents in Austria, whether consciously or not, are invaders of the domain of their neighbors. What we contend for is simply the loyal fulfillment of those fundamental compacts which made Hungary secure of her national independence when she called the present dynasty to the throne. On that ground,—Dr. Baumfeld quite correctly quotes my St. Louis address to that effect,—we shall keep faith with the dynasty and with our Austrian allies. On that ground only can the present crisis be ended, and the constant recurrence of similar ones be prevented. And it is because I heartily agree with Dr. Baumfeld in everything he says concerning the wisdom and exalted sense of duty which adorn emperor and king, Francis Joseph, that I feel quite confident that, in conformity with the programme of our parliamentary majority, a solution on such grounds will ultimately prevail.

BUDAPEST, June, 1905.

OUR TARIFF DIFFERENCES WITH GERMANY.

BY WOLF VON SCHIERBRAND.

(Author of "Germany: The Welding of a World Power.")

A TARIFF war between this country and Germany has been threatening for some time, but it is only since the announcement by the German Government, a couple of months ago, that it had been decided to terminate the tariff arrangement now existing with the United States that the situation has assumed an aspect warranting serious discussion of such a contingency. It may be worth while to look this danger in the face, and to examine the causes leading up to it as well as the defensive (and offensive) armor with which each of the two opponents would enter the lists. It will then be seen that there is something to be said on both sides. It will, perhaps, be still more profitable to indicate a way whereby a tariff war may probably be avoided without yielding on either side essential advantages.

In the main, it has been the commercial treaty of 1828 between the United States and Prussia (and the Hansa towns, etc.) under the terms of which trade relations between the German Empire and this republic have developed. These terms have been, broadly speaking, those of the "most favored nation." Germany, on her part, has adhered, so far, unswervingly to these terms, although in Bismarck's time, and several times since, Germany has used the weapon of sanitary regulations to hamper American imports of certain kinds in answer to measures employed here which diminished German trade with us. The American hog, it will be remembered, was boycotted by Bismarck for years, and more lately American dried fruit, preserved meats, etc., were tabooed for a time on the pretext of their "unhygienic qualities." These, however, were but needle-pricks, irritating, but not sensibly decreasing the volume of our trade with the empire. And the principle of the "most favored nation" was ostensibly lived up to on both sides. The first slight breach in this was made by us through reciprocity treaties (though to Germany they were not of great practical importance), the benefits of which were denied to Germany in Washington.

On the other hand, Germany, after making herself a whole series of highly important commercial (or reciprocity) treaties with Russia, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, Roumania,

Belgium, Servia, and a number of South and Central American states, admitted the United States to the benefits of these treaties without receiving any equivalent whatever, merely on the strength of the old treaty of 1828, mentioned above, and its "most favored nation" clause. There have been a few special agreements between the two countries, however, and the most important of them was the one of 1900, the so-called Saratoga convention, concluded on the German side by Mumm von Schwarzenstein, then *chargé d'affaires* at Washington, by virtue of which Germany withdrew all her objections to our meats and pork and we admitted German sugar on favorable terms. The effect of this treaty became manifest at once, for American exports to Germany during the ensuing twelve months bounded up to \$250,000,000, an increase of about \$70,000,000, and German sugar flooded our own market, rising many millions in value.

WHY THE GERMANS ARE DISSATISFIED.

There has been for a number of years deep dissatisfaction in Germany with these conditions. In support of it, facts and allegations were cited, as follows: To admit the United States to the same special (and far lower) tariff rates as those provided for in reciprocity treaties with a score of countries yielding Germany likewise special tariff rates without getting anything in return from the American Congress in the shape of reduced customs duties naturally placed American export to Germany on a better footing than that of any other competing nation, and led to a steadily increasing trade balance in America's favor. This fact is best shown by the official statistics. Germany's commercial-treaty policy dates from 1891. In that year American exports to Germany amounted to 456,000,000 marks (about \$113,000,000), and constituted 10.4 per cent. of Germany's total foreign trade; by 1900 they amounted to 1,020,000,000 marks (about \$250,000,000), and constituted 17 per cent. of Germany's total foreign trade. In the same period, though Germany's total exports grew 85 per cent., her exports to the United States increased but from 357,000,000 marks to 439,000,000 marks (about \$108,000,000), and in percentage there was a positive decrease,—from

10.7 per cent. to 9.3 per cent.* Since 1900, things in this respect have not vitally changed, although German exports to this country have slightly increased. That in itself, however, would not trouble Germany so much; there is another side to this question. For with the American exporter (though unaided by a special reciprocity treaty) forcing his way in, to the great disadvantage of Germany's commercial-treaty friends, Germany does not form for the latter as valuable a field for exploitation as it otherwise would, and Germany's treaty terms with these countries suffer correspondingly. That, indeed, is the gravest detriment to Germany from her own point of view.

Again, American tariff laws have changed so greatly and within so short a period that Germany's exporters have all along been unable to properly gauge their commercial chances here and to introduce such changes in manufacturing methods, etc., as would best conduce to a steady trade, since the element of stability has been lacking on this side. Again, Germany complains of underhanded methods employed by the United States consular corps and by the United States customs service for the purpose, on the one hand, of obtaining trade and manufacturing secrets from German competitors, and, on the other hand, of unfairly hampering German export trade to this country.

THE RECIPROCITY MOVEMENT.

Now, a couple of years ago a new German tariff law was adopted, partly to facilitate renewal of the lapsing reciprocity treaties or the concluding of new ones, but also, in part, to put Germany on a better footing as regards this country if a tariff war should be unavoidable, or, on the other hand, if a reciprocity treaty with the United States should be concluded. This new tariff law increases considerably duties on cereals, foodstuffs, and rawstuffs of every kind (these constituting, it must be remembered, 75 per cent. of the American imports in Germany) for all countries with which the empire has no special tariff treaty or other similar agreement. In the case of cereals, this increase varies between 250 and 120 per cent.; in the case of canned and preserved goods, it is between 50 and 360 per cent.; in the case of many manufactures (especially those in which America excels, such as sewing-machines, agricultural ma-

chinery, etc.) it is between 60 and 110 per cent.; even in petroleum, copper wire, and other articles which cannot easily be obtained of equal quality elsewhere than from the United States, there are large increases in duty. The tariff is, to put it plainly, a war measure, or, at least, a measure intended to exert hard pressure on the United States to come to a friendly understanding with Germany before it is too late.*

But what about the old treaty of 1828 and its "most favored nation" clause? That treaty is still in existence, it is true enough. But Germany has indicated her intention to denounce it in time to abrogate it before the new reciprocity treaties she has recently concluded go into effect. The date of their going into effect is March, 1906, and if Germany carries out her intention of denouncing her old treaty with the United States, she has still a number of months to do it in. That she was to denounce this treaty was, it is said, one of the silent stipulations of her new commercial treaties. If no reciprocity or other special commercial treaty with the United States takes the place of the old one, Germany will then be within her rights in applying to American imports her new "autonomous" tariff, placing the latter on several

*Tariff duties of Germany: Maximum under present law, reductions by treaty, autonomous duties to go into effect in 1906, and reductions granted to certain European countries on articles of import, expressed in American currency per 100 kilograms (220.4 pounds).

Merchandise.	Present tariff (adopted in 1879).		New tariff law of 1902 (to go into effect in 1906).	
	Maxi- mum.	Reduced by treaty.	Autono- mous.	Reduced by treaty.
Wheat.....	\$1.19	\$.83	\$1.78	\$1.30
Rye.....	1.19	.67	1.66	1.19
Oats.....	.95	.67	1.66	1.19
Barley.....	.53	.47	1.66	.95
Corn.....	.47	.38	1.19	.71
Wheat flour.....	2.50	1.74	4.36	2.42
Malt.....	.95	.85	2.44	1.37
Potatoes.....	Free.	Free.	.59	1.24
Hops.....	4.76	3.38	16.66	4.76
Dried apples, pears, apricots, and peaches	.95	.95	2.38	.95
Dried prunes.....	2.38	1.19
Fresh apples in barrels	Free.	Free.	2.38	1.19
Sausages.....	4.76	4.04	16.66	9.52
Lard.....	2.38	2.38	2.97	2.38
Salted meats.....	4.76	4.04	10.71	8.33-9.25
Butter.....	4.76	3.80	7.14	4.76
Cheese.....	4.76	4.76	7.14	3.57-4.76
Eggs.....	.71	.47	1.42	.71
Margarine.....	4.76	3.80	7.14	4.76
Wood alcohol.....	Free.	Free.	4.76	Free.
Cows and oxen, per head.....	2.14	2.14	4.28	1.90
Horses, per head.....	4.76	4.76	21.42-25.68	7.14-28.56
Hogs, per head.....	1.42	1.19	4.28	2.14
Shoes, coarse.....	11.90	11.90	20.23	20.23
Shoes, medium.....	16.66	15.47	28.86	23.80
Shoes, fine.....	16.66	15.47	42.84	35.70
Lumber, rough.....	1.42	.47
Lumber, dressed.....	2.38	2.38	2.38	2.38
Sewing-machines.....	5.71	5.71	8.33	2.85
Sewing-mach's, power	5.71	5.71	4.76	1.90

*I am quoting here German official statistics, for the reason that they take into due account the "Ursprungsland,"—i.e., the country whence imports are derived, thus including as American imports those which reach Germany via Belgian and Dutch ports, a thing which American official statistics fail to do, to the frequent misleading of students of tariff conditions.

hundreds of articles (including some of the most important) at such a disadvantage that the prospective loss to American trade is variously estimated at between \$40,000,000 and \$100,000,000.

This, it must be understood, is the German idea of the matter. It is, on the whole, the idea of the Agrarian party in Germany, the party which hates in the United States its keenest and most successful rival in the home market for food-stuffs, etc. This party, too, it is which has driven the present German Government to pursue its new course. But while Prince von Bülow and the Kaiser have so far yielded to the Agrarian party, and also to the peculiar force of circumstances, it is not the German Government which is anxious to enter on a "merry tariff war" with this country, as Count Kanitz, the Agrarian leader, once put it in the Reichstag. Such a war forms no part of their policy, and both the government and the bulk of the German nation would deplore it if it should get that far. They would vastly prefer a reciprocity treaty with this country. They are perfectly aware of the fact that a tariff war is a double-edged sword, invariably cutting both ways, and that it is questionable indeed which of the two opponents would suffer most.

GERMANY NOT PREPARED FOR A TARIFF WAR.

For a tariff war with this country Germany is, indeed, poorly prepared. And this for the well-known reason that while the articles she imports from America are very largely indispensable (like cereals, meats, hams, bacon, dried, canned, and preserved foodstuffs), which she cannot obtain elsewhere as cheaply and of as good quality; rawstuffs required for her own varied industries (like cotton, lumber, leather, copper), which she would likewise find it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to get in sufficient quantity from any other source; industrial articles (like agricultural machinery and tool machines), in which this country stands unrivaled, Germany's exports to this country are, with relatively few and unimportant exceptions, not indispensable at all, and for the most part easily replaced, such as beet sugar, chemicals and dyes, porcelains and stoneware, toys, cloths, hosiery, etc. It is not necessary to enter in detail into this argument, for its force is self-evident.

Unfortunately, slight hope exists of the feasibility of a reciprocity treaty between the two countries. Germany has urged such a treaty for many years, and again and again (and, to confine myself to very recent times, both during Cleveland's and McKinley's terms) negotiations have been diplomatically conducted to that

end in Berlin as well as in Washington. These negotiations were always vigorously pushed by Germany, but they never led to anything tangible, and this for the very good reason that the United States had every reason in the world to be quite satisfied with the existing treaty. Even now, if Germany should terminate the old treaty, there seems to be slight chance of a reciprocity treaty. Weighty reasons speak against it. Recent public utterances by Secretary Shaw appear to show that for the present, at least, President Roosevelt and his advisers have dropped reciprocity. The country as a whole, as well as the administration, are engrossed with the railroad-rebate question, the trust problem, and other matters, and the tariff issue is somnolent. But aside from this, no reciprocity treaty of any description could pass the present Senate, even if the lower house had sanctioned it.

However, even without such a new and formal treaty, I believe it possible to avoid a tariff war between the United States and Germany, for half the grievances of which Germany complains can easily be remedied on this side without in the least infringing on the policy or practice of protectionism. German manufacturers and exporters allege that in many recent instances American consuls, under cover of their official status, have spied out their trade secrets and manufacturing processes, or else have aided American emissaries to do so. Again, they claim that the United States Government, through its customs officials here, has unduly annoyed, financially injured, and hampered them by varying interpretations of the Dingley law, by arbitrary and unfair appraisements, and by other means. Of these things, in fact, they complain more loudly and bitterly than of the present high tariff on German goods itself, and the German press constantly rings with new instances of this kind. That there is a fair measure of truth in these complaints admits scarcely of doubt. The administration in Washington is perfectly aware of it. Personally, I could mention a number of cases which bear out this contention,—cases which occurred, in the course of the past few years, in industrial centers like Glauchau (cloths), Chemnitz (hosiery), Plauen (laces), Sonnefeld (toys), Berlin (notions, dry goods, etc.), and Elberfeld (silk ribbons).

If, therefore, these official abuses were rigidly eliminated by our Treasury and State departments, the Germans would be deprived of half their reasons for just complaint, and the spirit of bitterness which now adds so much to the chances of a tariff war with this country would quickly die away. It is a method worth trying, at any rate.

THE JAPANESE MERCHANT FLEET.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

(Secretary of the United States Merchant Marine Commission.)

THERE are four nations which within a dozen years, by dint of lavish expenditure, have rapidly created great war fleet and joined the proud company of the world's sea powers. These, in the order of their strength as it existed a year ago, are Russia, Germany, the United States, and Japan. Two of these four nations, realizing that a war fleet must not be a mere mushroom growth, but must have the indispensable reserve of a large merchant fleet behind it, have simultaneously developed a fine, prosperous, commercial shipping. These prudent and enlightened nations are Germany and Japan. Two nations have been content to build armor-clads and guns, and have fatuously neglected the problem of properly manning and supplying their squadrons in the shock of war. These blind governments are Russia and America.

The Japanese merchant marine has increased from 151,000 tons in 1890 to 830,000 in 1904; the Russian merchant tonnage, on the other hand, is chiefly local, confined to the Baltic or the Black Sea. Only one company, the so-called "volunteer fleet"—really a government concern—has engaged to any extent in distant voyages. Russia's ocean shipping in general is even feebler than that of the United States, which has been shrinking for forty years and now scarcely suffices to convey one-tenth of our commercial interchanges.

With few Russian ocean ships, there are, of course, few Russian officers and seamen. Richard Cobden, visiting Russia years ago, pointed unerringly to the hidden weakness which has just brought such terrible humiliation in the sea battles with Japan:

People confuse in their minds the defensive and the aggressive power of Russia. She is invulnerable against foreign attack by land, because no large army can be concentrated within her borders (unless it be in Moscow or St. Petersburg), for want of accumulated store of food, etc. . . . She has, it is true, a large force of ships of war, but they are manned by serfs taken from the villages of the interior, who are undeserving the name of sailors, and it is pretty certain they would never venture into an engagement with an English or American fleet; and if they did, it is quite certain they would be taken or destroyed.

Ship for ship and gun for gun, there was not much to choose between the Port Arthur or the Baltic fleet and the victorious force of Admiral

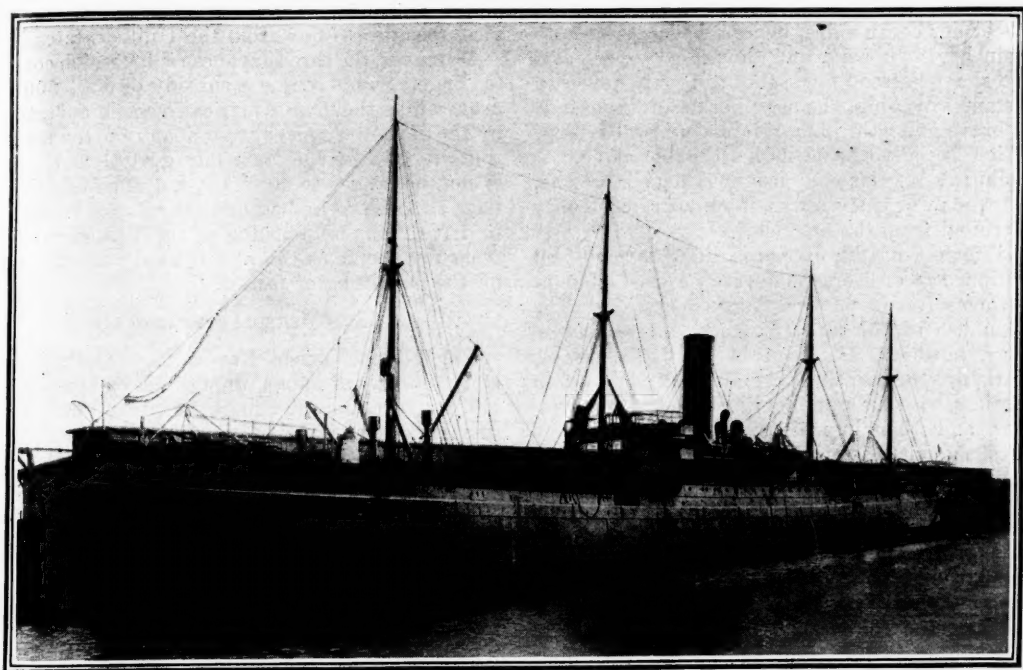
Togo. But there was this vital difference,—that while the Japanese crews were good seamen, and therefore, of course, good fighting men, the Russian crews were chiefly the raw and seasick sons of Cobden's "serfs from the interior."

For Japan had profited by the lesson of her conflict with China eleven years ago. In the words of Baron Kaneko: "We had too small a fleet in the time of the China-Japanese war even to carry our own soldiers. Therefore, we ordered a subsidy paid for all ships of a certain tonnage trading in foreign waters, and for iron boats of 1,000 tons or over built either in Japan or abroad." This new, comprehensive, and brilliantly successful expedient was put into force in 1896, for a period of fifteen years. Japan in 1896 had no native shipyards capable of heavy steel construction. All of her few large merchant steamers, and, indeed, all of the important cruisers that had just won for her the glorious triumph of the Yalu, were foreign-built. It was necessary to procure abroad the powerful vessels required for the first increase of Japan's merchant marine, for they could not be fabricated within the empire.

But the statesmen of Tokio were both shrewd and patriotic enough to realize that no sea power worthy of the name could afford to depend upon its competitors in trade for the ships to convey its commerce. So, though Japanese registry was necessarily kept open to foreign-built vessels, a new and significant departure was now taken toward developing strong home shipyards, by a grant of a bounty of from \$6 to \$12 per ton and of \$5 per indicated horse-power to all seagoing steamers constructed in Japan. Under the same act, all Japanese steamers, of native or foreign origin, owned exclusively by Japanese subjects, were given a navigation or maintenance bounty of from 12½ to 30 cents per ton for every 1,000 miles sailed in foreign commerce,—this bounty being paid in full for the first five years, and then decreasing 5 per cent. every year until the fifteenth year, when it ceases altogether.

THE LESSON OF WAR.

Before the Chinese war of 1894, Japan, under a "free ship" policy but without national assistance, had had a poor and languishing mer-



THE TWIN-SCREW STEAMSHIP "KANAGAWA MARU," OF THE NIPPON YUSEN KAISHA.

chant marine. The total Japanese tonnage, steam and sail, in 1890, was only 151,000. In 1891, it was 146,000; in 1892, 148,000; in 1893, 179,000,—a petty increase of only 28,000 tons, or the equivalent of four or five steamers, in three or four years. The conflict of 1894 in Korea and Manchuria, compelling the Japanese Government to purchase anything which it could get for transport purposes, brought the empire's merchant tonnage up to 312,000 tons in 1895. But the real growth of the Japanese merchant marine as the world now knows it may be said to date from the general subsidy act of 1896. Every year since then has witnessed a steady gain, to the handsome tonnage of 830,000 in 1904. The Japanese fleet, including vessels built, purchased, and captured, is now not far from 1,000,000 tons.

In 1872, the Japanese commercial navy consisted chiefly of ancient and unwieldy junks. There were only 96 small steamers, of an aggregate tonnage of 24,000, in the empire. By 1900, Japan possessed 846 steamers, of 528,000 tons. A considerable part of this great fleet, including nearly all of the large steamers first acquired, was built in Europe, because—as has already been explained—Japan in 1896 had none of the modern shipyards which we already possess in the United States. But the liberal

bounty offered by the Japanese Government for home-built vessels has developed native shipbuilding almost as swiftly as the navigation bounties have developed native ship-owning.

The principal yard of the empire is that of the Mitsubishi Company, of Nagasaki, which in 1900 launched a steel steamer of 7,000 tons. Many vessels of a similar type have since been constructed in Japan. Ten large vessels are now on the stocks at Nagasaki. Nor has the effect of this national assistance to Japanese shipbuilding ceased with the merchant marine. Success in constructing ocean liners has now encouraged Japan to lay the keels of a 16,000-ton battleship and a 12,000-ton cruiser, and has thus relieved the empire of the cost and peril of depending upon Europe for her heavy men-of-war.

NATIONAL AID AND NATIVE APTITUDE.

Not even Germany, which invokes other forms of state aid besides direct subsidy or bounty, has been so successful in the swift creation of sea power as Japan. But it must not be assumed that therefore subsidy as applied to shipping is all-potent and all-sufficient, and that a nation need only give help from the treasury to see its ocean shipping grow as Jonah's gourd. There must be also the essential quality of native aptitude, and this Japan has in abundant measure.

At first she was forced to employ Europeans to officer her ocean ships, but she began at once to train her own sons, and though a dozen years ago she possessed few sailors of experience in distant voyaging, she now boasts of thousands of brave and skillful mariners,—a naval reserve which has just proved its inestimable value.

Japan's regular navy has not been a large one, but when war came it was quickly and efficiently recruited from the merchant service. The best and fastest of the Japanese liners, armed and equipped as cruisers, have given a good account of themselves in Admiral Togo's operations. The main use of the large Japanese merchant tonnage, however, has been in the indispensable work, first, of carrying several hundred thousand soldiers, with their artillery and equipment, overseas, and then in maintaining communication with the victorious armies in Korea and Manchuria. All observers agree that this transport service has been wonderful in its precision, and there can be no doubt that the subsidized merchant ships, plying ceaselessly to and fro from the Japanese ports to the mainland, and keeping food ever in the haversacks and cartridges in the belts of the soldiers of Oyama and Nogi, have repaid manifold all that they have cost the Japanese people and their government.

There is certainly an eloquent contrast between Japan's preparedness and our own desperate hunt for a transport shipping in the war with Spain. Indeed, it is fair to say that but for the Japanese subsidy legislation and its fruit in a large, modern, efficient of merchant marine the triumphs of the Japanese armies in the war of 1904-05 would have been absolutely impossible.

DOMINATING THE PACIFIC.

This truth is so clearly realized by the Japanese statesmen that a still more notable expansion of Japanese commercial shipping is sure to follow the return of peace. Already the Japanese merchant flag holds a formidable place on the Pacific Ocean. Until the war drafted them into the national service, Japanese steamers ran in regular lines to Puget Sound, to San Francisco *via* Hawaii, and to Australia *via* the Philippines. Under a revision of the Japanese shipping laws, adopted in 1900, these lines are receiving large annual subsidies. It ought to be instructive to Americans to know that three Japanese steamers running from the Orient to San Francisco are given by their government \$517,000 a year, while the five American steamers of the Pacific Mail Company, carrying much

more mail and performing a more frequent service, receive \$64,000 from the United States.

Moreover, the three Japanese ships which come to Puget Sound enjoy a subsidy of \$333,500 a year, while the five American vessels operated by the Boston Steamship Company on the same route receive \$4,935 from our government. It is not necessary to look beyond such amazing facts as these to understand why Japan expects to drive the merchant flag of the United States from the Pacific as completely as she has driven off the naval flag of Russia.

A POWERFUL COMPANY.

The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the chief steamship company of Japan, though only a few years old, is far larger and more powerful, and possesses more tonnage, than any ocean steamship company in America. It has 70 steamers, of 236,000 tons, and has recently declared a 12 per cent. dividend. Besides the lines to Australia and Puget Sound, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha operates a line of twelve fourteen-knot steamers to Europe, for which it receives a subsidy of \$1,364,000 annually, or as much as the United States gives in mail and naval subventions to all the ocean lines beneath the American flag.

It is said that the shipping laws which have wrought this swift expansion of the Japanese merchant marine,—the act of 1896 and the amendatory act of 1900,—passed the Diet by unanimous vote. Regularly for years our American Presidents have urged in their formal messages that steps be taken for the rehabilitation of the American merchant marine. This has been repeatedly demanded by the commercial interests of the United States, and it has been promised in successive national party platforms. Until now, however, Congress has neglected to adopt any comprehensive measure of relief or encouragement. Meanwhile, our European competitors have destroyed American shipping on the steam routes of the North Atlantic, as the Japanese are preparing to do on the Pacific. Trained American officers and seamen, available for a naval reserve, will soon become as few as Russia has just found her own officers and men in the awful hour of her trial and humiliation.

The maintenance of an adequate merchant shipping has thus far been regarded in America as mainly a commercial question. But the experience of Japan and the fate of Russia sharply suggest whether this is not even more imperatively a question of naval preparedness, of national defense.

THE PEACE NEGOTIATORS AT WASHINGTON.

WITH the announcement of the appointment of the peace plenipotentiaries and the agreement of Russia and Japan upon Portsmouth, N. H., as an adjourned place of meeting during the hot weather, all the details preliminary to the conference between the two belligerents have been practically arranged. The negotiators finally chosen are: For Russia, Count Sergius Witte (he is a count, although he seldom uses his title) and Baron Roman Romanovitch Rosen; for Japan, Baron Jutaro Komura and Mr. Kogoro Takahira. Each commission will bring with it a corps of secretaries and legal advisers, including some of the most eminent diplomatic and legal talent obtainable.

Baron Rosen and Mr. Takahira are already in this country, and Count Witte and Baron Komura will have arrived before this number of the REVIEW reaches most of its readers. There were several changes in the original announcement of names for the commission,—M. Nelidov, Russian ambassador to France, and Ambassador Muraviev having been successively named and declining to serve on the Russian side; while Count Ito, prominently mentioned as Japan's chief negotiator, but never officially appointed, had been generally regarded as unable to serve because of advanced age.

The names of all these commissioners are such as to indicate the sincerity and high intentions of both contending powers, and the announcement of their appointment has been received with satisfaction throughout the world. They are all plenipotentiary,—that is, clothed with full power to negotiate terms of peace, subject only in matters of the most vital importance to the revision of their home governments.

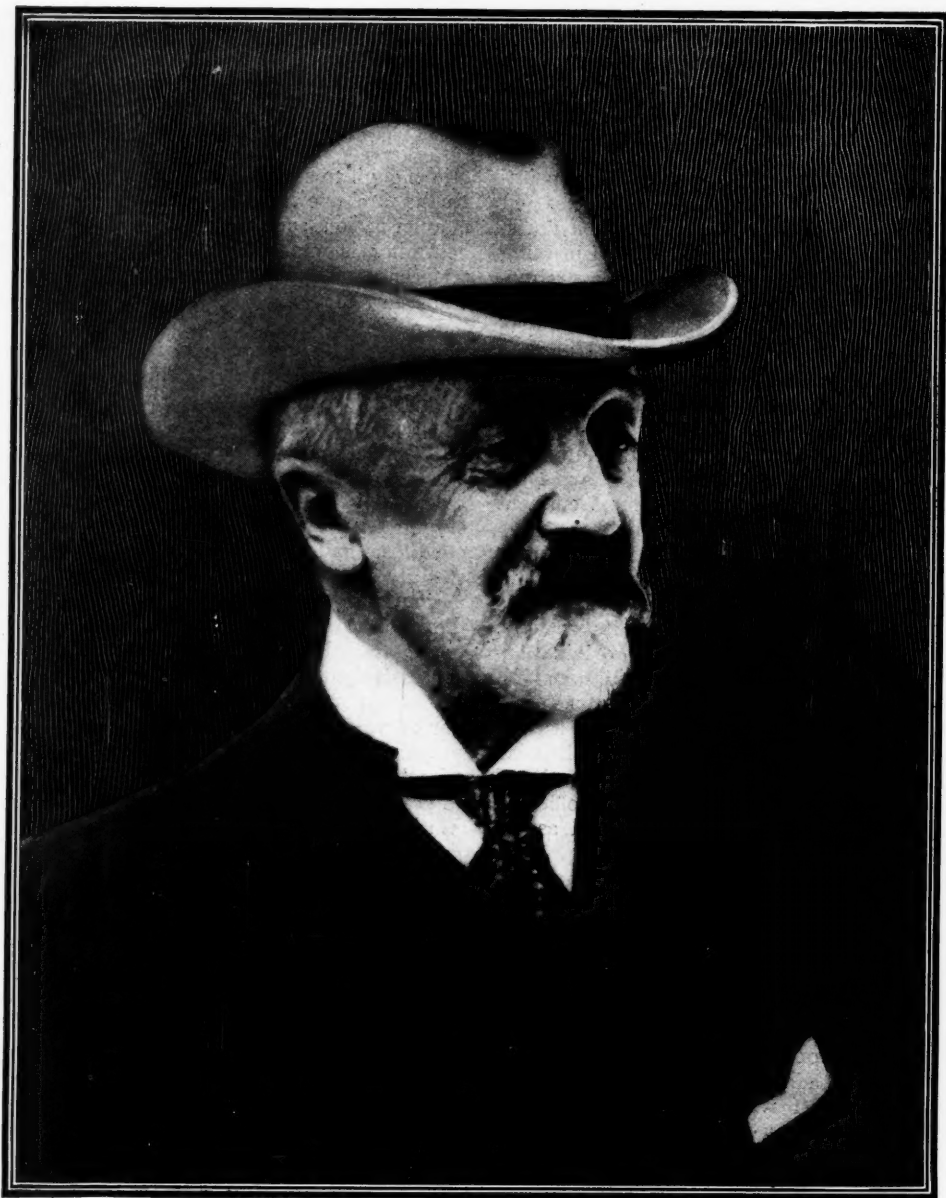
The commission will sit in the government building in the navy yard at Portsmouth, and will be the guest of the United States Government during its stay.

That Czar Nicholas is earnestly and sincerely desirous of peace is plainly evident from his appointment of Sergius Witte as Russia's chief negotiator. This statesman's eminent services to his country, and his high native ability, as well as his known desire for peace and his considerate attitude toward the Tokio government, are a guarantee that Russia will obtain the most favorable terms compatible with the vital interests of Japan. Mr. Witte is thoroughly imbued with the modern spirit. An aristocrat by temperament and naturally inclined to favor the autocracy, he is yet far-sighted and truly patri-

otic enough to see that the days of despotism in Russia are over, and that an industrial, commercial nation, such as the Russians are rapidly becoming, is impossible unless the arbitrary interferences of the autocracy and the bureaucracy be removed.

Mr. Witte, who comes of old Dutch stock, is now in his fifty-seventh year. Born the son of a poor tradesman at Tiflis, Witte began life as a railroad clerk, who also performed the functions of porter. He has been a railroad man all his life, and it is in railroad service that he sees a large feature of his country's future prosperity. In the war with Turkey, in 1878, Russia's military communications were in a terrible condition, and it was Witte who, having risen steadily from his provincial position to one of national import, brought order out of chaos and did more than any one civilian to bring victory to Russia. Promotion came swiftly. He was successively director and administrator of a number of important railway systems, wrote a number of volumes on railway administration, and prepared the first statute of Russian railways. Finally, as minister of ways and communications (a post to which he was appointed in 1892), Mr. Witte was able to introduce a finely organized system into all the Russian railways and convert many of them from liabilities into assets. Barely half a year after his appointment as minister of ways and communications, he was elevated to the important position of minister of finance.

Mr. Witte found Russia practically a medieval, largely Oriental, country. By his energy, and with the aid of his practical experience, he succeeded in leaving her well advanced on the way toward a truly modern commonwealth, commercially and industrially. He championed Russian manufacturing interests; used the vast enterprises and resources of the state to build up manufactures in many ways; discouraged investment in speculative schemes; brought about the adoption of the gold standard by the Russian Government; created the Siberian Railway; prevailed upon the state to assume a monopoly of the manufacture and sale of whiskey, improving the quality of this production and restricting its sale so that drunkenness has been largely decreased; established a government reserve fund, from which distressed agriculturists have been able to borrow millions of rubles annually; and, while refraining from increasing the burden of direct taxation, almost doubled the government revenue from



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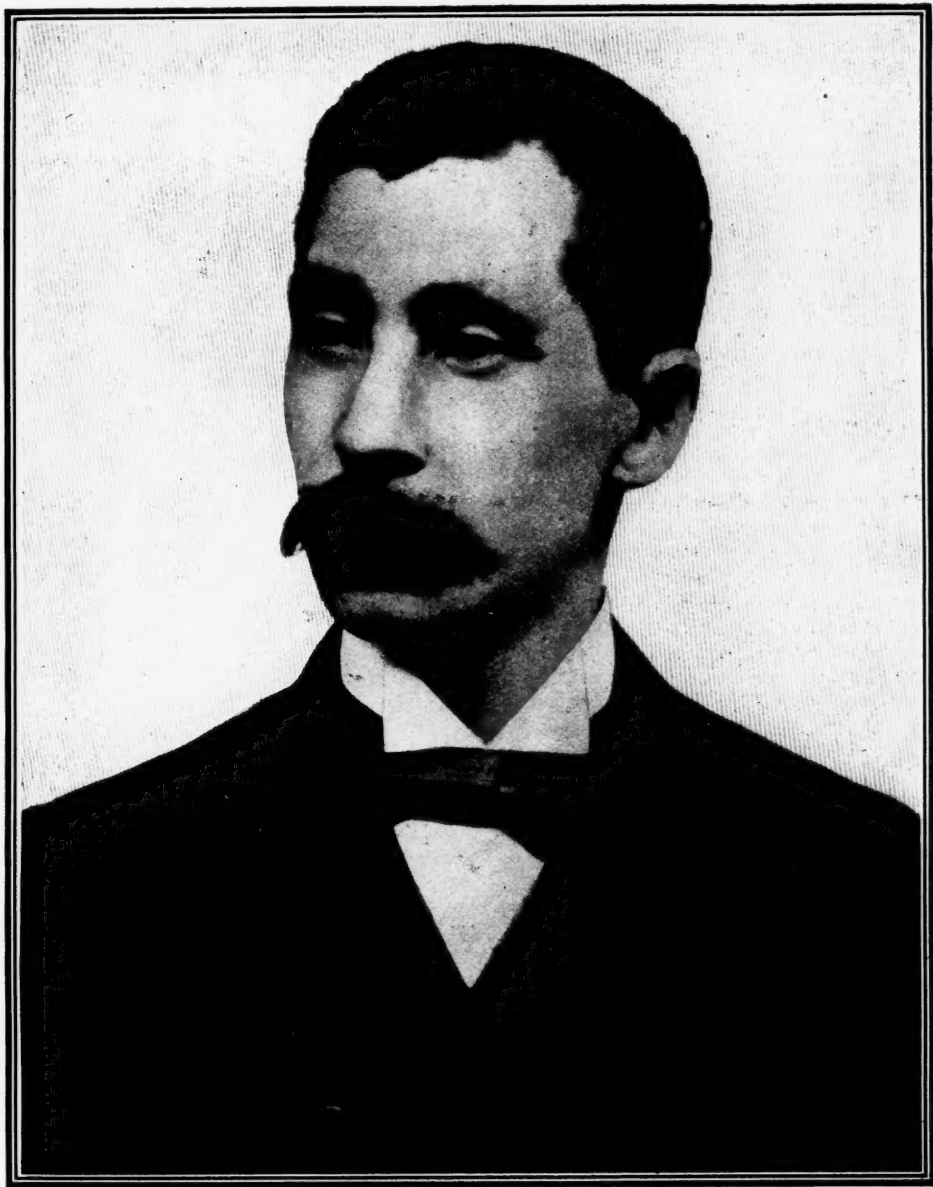
BARON ROMAN ROMANOVITCH ROSEN.

(New Russian ambassador to the United States and Russia's second peace negotiator with Japan. A portrait of Russia's leading negotiator, Count Sergius Witte, is frontispiece to this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

indirect taxation. But he was too progressive and too thoroughly imbued with the modern spirit for the reactionaries, and after acting for some years as secretary of state and privy councillor he was shelved by being made president of the Committee of Ministers.

Russia's other commissioner, Baron Rosen, who is also the new ambassador to Washington,

succeeding Count Cassini, has a long-standing acquaintance with the United States and American life. Baron Rosen was for eight years first secretary of the Russian embassy in Washington, and for years consul-general in New York. Baron Rosen is eminently a peace man. He served his country for many years as secretary of legation, and then as minister, in Tokio, and



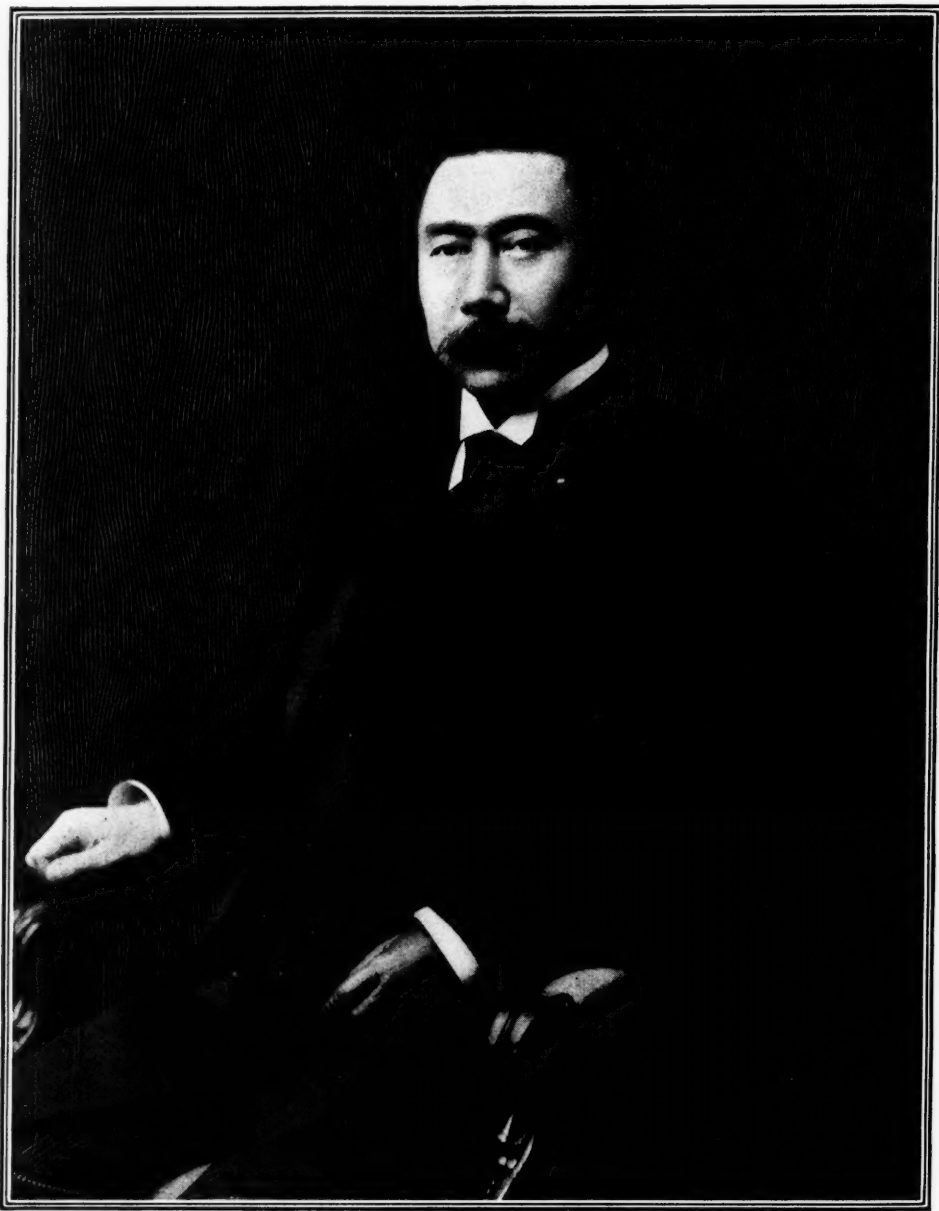
BARON JUTARO KOMURA.

(Japan's minister of foreign affairs and her leading peace negotiator.)

was emphatic in his denunciation of the war policy of Alexiev and others. He has never forfeited the respect and admiration of the Japanese people, and his appointment as one of the commissioners has already brightened the chances of a permanent and honorable peace.

Baron Jutaro Komura is one of the most remarkable of the younger statesmen of Japan. He comes from the ministry of foreign affairs, a

post which he has filled with dignity and success since 1900. He conducted the Manchurian negotiations which led up to the war in a manner highly satisfactory to the Emperor and the entire people. Baron Komura is a Harvard man, and speaks English with a strong Boston accent. He won his spurs in Korea, in 1895, when Japanese diplomacy was so discredited. Five years later, he went to Peking, and participated in the peace



Photograph by Prince, Washington.

MR. KOGORO TAKAHIRA.

(Japanese minister to the United States and second peace negotiator.)

conference there, as a result of the Boxer rebellion and the expedition of the allied powers. During his stay at the Chinese capital he won the confidence of China so largely that there has existed an unpublished but effective alliance between Japan and China, which has been very helpful to the former during her war with Russia. Baron Komura was Japanese minister to Washington preceding Mr. Takahira. His greatest

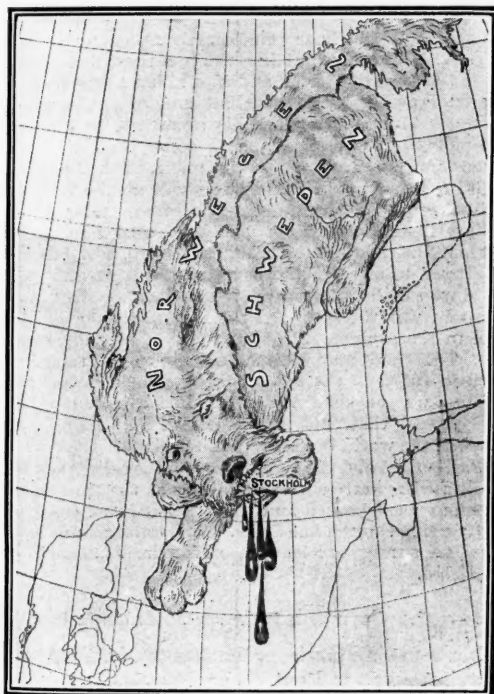
triumph may be said to be the long and delicate negotiations which he, as foreign minister, conducted with Baron Rosen, then Russian minister, which culminated in the great struggle between the two powers.

The second Japanese commissioner is Mr. Takahira, present Japanese minister to the United States, whose career and diplomatic accomplishments were outlined in this REVIEW for June.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE SEPARATION OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN.

WRITING in the *Monthly Review* on "Scandinavia in the Scales of the Future," Mr. E. John Solano lays stress upon the danger that Germany, by way of creating bad blood between Briton and Slav, may encourage Russia to seize the northern seaports of Norway. The Norwegian littoral, he points out, is more than



GERMAN ADVICE TO NORWAY.

"In biting off Sweden's nose, be careful you do not lose your own teeth!"—From *Ulk* (Berlin).

ever tempting to Russia now that she has been driven out of the Pacific. He hopes that Norway will not sever all union with Sweden.

If the Norwegian people have finally decided on separation, the situation is indeed hopeless. But if they are truly desirous of maintaining the principle of the union,—which their ministers have stated to be the case,—and, at the same time, determined to vindicate, peacefully, their right to stand as an independent sov-

ereign state, there is one practical way for the attainment of both of these ends. They have now declared that the issues with Sweden are international—not domestic. Then, through the present admirable and conciliatory attitude of Sweden, they may, without loss of dignity or prestige, follow the precedent of other independent states and propose to seek final arbitration upon the issues with Sweden—from a friendly and trusted foreign ruler, with a view to preserving the principle of the union in whatever form it may be both possible and acceptable. For such an office King Edward VII. of Greater Britain may well be preferred, both by reason of his relationship to the future Queen of Sweden,—who would have been the joint queen of Sweden and Norway,—and his reputation as an advocate of peace. Such an arbitrament would further set the seal of Britain upon the essential condition of the future safety of Scandinavia—the union, to which she gave her sanction when, through her fleets and armies, she gave peace to Europe a century ago. This suggestion—if all others fail—is at least worth the attention of Scandinavian statesmen.

Sweden's National Parliament, the Riksdag.

The only real opposition to the peaceful, quiet settlement of the Norwegian-Swedish difficulty has so far come from the landed class of Sweden and the Swedish upper house. In the Danish review *Det Nye Aarhundrede*, of Copenhagen, a writer who signs himself Spånberg sketches the history and general attitude of this body. It was established, he tells us, by legislation of the same aristocratic character as the Danish house. This upper chamber of the Riksdag is composed of one hundred and fifty members, or about one-half the number of the lower house. They are chosen by electors. The voters have votes in proportion to their income, with the only limit that no single voter may cast more than five hundred ballots. Thus, the predominance of the wealthy is secured. In addition, this is further secured by the regulation that no one is eligible to membership in the upper house unless he possess 80,000 kroner (approximately, \$20,000), or a yearly income of 4,000 kroner (approximately, \$1,000). According to Mr. Spånberg, the history of this house has been a very discreditable one. He asserts that it has always been opposed to progress and liberalism. It has always been bitterly opposed to the Norwegian demands. It has always demanded a larger army and navy, and has invariably stood for more kingly power. The upper chamber has also brought about the

passage of a high protective tariff for industry and agriculture. This policy, which Mr. Spångberg insists was brought about through political fraud, has, he believes, impoverished the workman and the common people in the interest

of the manufacturers and landlords. In regard to religious liberty, education, and other questions, this writer finds the upper house of the Swedish parliament always considering its own privileges before the interests of the people.

DELCASSÉ AND GERMAN "WELTPOLITIK."

WHAT the French cannot forgive M. Delcassé, says M. de Pressensé, writing in the *Nineteenth Century*, is "not to have known his mind, not to have chosen between a policy of friendly talk and a policy of silent indifference, and to have maladroitly given pretext and

M. Rouvier promised,—first, the immediate return to neutrality in Indo-Chinese waters, and we got it; secondly, the immediate opening of friendly conversation with Germany; but here he was, and we were, too, balked by the obstinacy of his colleague. I do not think English opinion would have tolerated for an hour a minister who, without offering any denial, any explanation, any answer, before the only legitimate instance, Parliament, after having left the head of the government to save him by making specific promises in his name, should have immediately taken up his intrigues, should have put into use in a most dangerous crisis the force of inertia, and should have secretly got the tribe of officious journalists and of sympathetic correspondents to trumpet his greatness, to traduce the policy of his critics, and to serve his obstinacy. Time went by. No progress was made. The advocates of M. Delcassé proclaimed that it was all the fault of Wilhelm the Second, and everybody was tempted to believe it. All at once it was discovered that while Germany without doubt brought "no milk of human kindness" to sweeten the negotiations, it was M. Delcassé who deliberately persisted in keeping silent. A question was threatened in the House; it was put to him in the cabinet. Brought to bay, he let the secret out. This small man was mad enough to look serenely, even joyfully, on the fearful prospect of a great Continental war on such a pretext. Facts came out. It was proved that, not satisfied with imperiling the peace of the world by putting under his feet the orders of Parliament and the instructions of his colleagues, he negotiated secretly with the Vatican at the time when relations were broken and when France was engaged in divorcing Church and State. Such unforgivable mistakes are surely sufficient reason for the dismissal of a politician.



DELCASSÉ'S NEST DISTURBED.

(One of the chickens, Morocco, is represented as trying to break away from the protection of the mother bird, and the Russian Baltic fleet is enjoying the sheltering protection of French "neutrality," while Germany, England, and Japan look on threateningly.)—From *Le Grelot* (Paris).

occasion to what we call, in France, a *querelle d'Allemand*. When the crisis came, when Wilhelm the Second went to Fez and talked big, it was not too late to put him in the wrong, to take back the interrupted method of negotiations, and to free the way to peaceful action in Morocco." Congratulating the nation on the accession of M. Rouvier, this writer continues:

How the Germans Regard Delcassé's Fall.

Mr. Austen Harrison, the son of Mr. Frederic Harrison, who is Reuter's agent at Berlin, sends to the same review the German view of the French minister's fall. He says:

M. Delcassé had ended by flouting Germany; Morocco was about to become a French colony, America was pro-English, and the Spanish plans had proved abortive. England had quite recovered her position in the world. This was the plight of Germany when suddenly the collapse of Russia was revealed to Europe. With consummate skill the Emperor William gauged the situation, and acted accordingly. He went to Morocco. In one day he completely changed the whole military situation. For the plain fact is, German military opinion no longer fears France. Moreover, from the most martial people in Europe the French have become emi-

nently industrious and peace-loving. Their fighting zest has gone. All this the German Emperor was fully aware of. He immediately began to browbeat France, which, it must be admitted, was in a very delicate position. Gradually the situation grew worse. Germany continued silently arming, but still M. Delcassé showed no sign of relenting, and things rapidly drifted into a dangerous state of tension. The crisis came suddenly. About the time that the bride of the crown prince was making her state entry into Berlin, the German Government was officially informed of certain movements of French troops near the frontier; regiments had been brought up to their full strength, and officers' leave had been stopped. The reply of Germany was practically an ultimatum. For a couple of days the situation was really critical. Germany demanded that the massing of troops on the frontier should cease, or it would be regarded as an unfriendly act; and to her great relief the long-wished-for reply was ultimately flashed across the wires. M. Delcassé was to retire. All immediate danger was averted. Count Bülow was elevated to the dignity of prince, and by sacrificing M. Delcassé France proclaimed to the world her peaceful proclivities.

For the continuance of M. Delcassé in office, concludes this writer, would have forced France to face the eventuality of war with Germany, who, whether bluffing (as some suppose) or not, gave France clearly to understand that further evasion on her part to enter into negotiations with Germany regarding Morocco would jeopardize the peace of Europe. And so France decided to meet Germany half-way. That is the reason and the meaning of M. Delcassé's fall.

The Overlordship of Germany.

That the effacement of Russia means the ascendancy of Germany has been rudely brought home to many European statesmen by the dismissal of M. Delcassé at the bidding of the

Kaiser. Dr. E. J. Dillon, in the *Contemporary*, moralizes upon the consequences of the paramountcy of Germany. He tells us quite frankly:

The effective barrier to Germany's policy of aggression has been swept away, and with it one of the mainstays of the world's peace. And to remedy that state of things ought to be the primary aim of our foreign policy in the present and in the future. The Hohenzollern world-empire is no longer a mere dream. Politicians note with amazement how suddenly that ambitious aim, long scoffed at as chimerical, has come to be reckoned with as one of the contingencies of the near future. Europe will henceforward be policed and watched over by Germany, and the only contribution she will expect from her *protégés* is that they shall adjust their foreign policy to her interests, which are, of course, those of peace. But what they must be prepared for is the intermeddling in every international, and even purely national, question, not merely of the German Kaiser or his government, whom we are wont to look upon as lovers of peace, but also of the Prussian war party, whose aims the Kaiser and his government are said to disavow, deprecate, and act upon. If one may judge by the present temper of the French Chamber, henceforth no secretary of state for foreign affairs will be tolerated in France whose policy or person is disagreeable to the German Kaiser, the German chancellor, or the German war party. Whenever the differences between France and Germany are settled, and they will probably be solved diplomatically by the representatives of the two interested powers, southern Morocco will, it is alleged, be earmarked for the Fatherland.

It is more difficult to remove Germany's grievance against England. For "the main interest of Germany was, is, and will be, the perpetuation of the immemorial feud between England and France. To end that once for all would be to do Germany a permanent and a vital injury. That, it is affirmed, is the standpoint of the Kaiser's government."

THE DISINTEGRATION OF MOROCCO.

AN elaborate and keen analysis of the present status of Morocco and the future possibilities of that country is contributed to the *International Quarterly* by Ion Perdicaris, whose first-hand knowledge of Morocco and conditions of life in that empire are certainly not excelled. Mr. Perdicaris believes that, after the evolution of Japan, the development of China will come, and then, "ultimately, poor Morocco, very limp and lame, will begin to move into line, though slowly and most unwillingly, despite the physic held so insistently to her lips by her would-be foster-mother, Madame France, who has so alluringly labeled the unwelcome drug 'Pacific Penetration.'" For centuries, he continues, "this woe-begone child of sorrow, Morocco, has lain like a misshapen incubus along the north-

western shore of Africa, a nest of pirates, a constant menace to the mariner, an abode of unmitigated cruelty and oppression, a curse to its own inhabitants and a terror to the rest of the world."

A detailed recapitulation of the history of Morocco for the past century follows, and the reign of the former Sultan, Mulai-el-Hassan, is treated exhaustively. Coming to the reign of the present Sultan, Abd-el-Aziz, Mr. Perdicaris describes the political and economic condition of the country as hopelessly bad, compelling the interference of foreign powers to preserve order and peace. England and France had worked together in comparative harmony, and matters were on the way to a peaceful settlement, says Mr. Perdicaris, when, "last and

greatest of all the trials to which the French had been exposed, came the dramatic announcement of the approaching arrival at Tangier of the Emperor William in person, an ominous presence, boding ill to penetration, pacific or otherwise." Despite the possibilities for trouble in the German Emperor's visit, Mr. Perdicaris believes that there is "indisputable justification of the Kaiser's intervention in the evident determination of the French to reserve for themselves all government concessions, in spite of their enforced inability to assure the maintenance of order in the Moorish sultanate or to protect the inhabitants even of the coast towns against aggressions." In further justification of the Kaiser's visit Mr. Perdicaris says:

What critics who are ignorant of trade conditions in Morocco do not realize is that the entire trade, both imports and exports, only amounts to about fifteen million dollars per annum, and that the fulfillment of government orders for public works required to develop transport and other resources indispensably needed to render any serious expansion of trade possible constitutes the only important financial operation of the immediate future. If France were willing to assume the responsibility or expense of maintaining order, she might have been entitled to reserve for French syndicates alone such advantages; but as it is, the Kaiser is amply justified in insisting that German merchants shall have a share in placing tenders for these Moorish orders, tenders or bids which, unless thus especially protected, would be defeated by the predominant influence which the French profess the right to assert by virtue of the Anglo-French agreement of April, 1904, and the subsequent Franco-Spanish agreement. The only way to secure this right to a share in such enterprises is for the various governments represented at the Madrid conference of 1880 to hold the Sultan to that agreement, and to refuse to recognize any right on the part of France, England, or Spain to guarantee to France or to any power an exclusive or predominating influence in Morocco.

Should the conference actually take place, he continues, "it might be advisable, in the interests of an amicable solution, to suggest a division of these Moorish government concessions," classified under some of the following heads, each class to be awarded to syndicates of the respective powers interested in the settlement of this thorny question:

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
| 1. Austria-Hungary, | Concessions for uniforms and small arms, with other similar equipments. |
| 2. Belgium, | Electric appliances. |
| 3. France, | Execution of works for ports and harbors. |
| 4. Germany, | Artillery and ammunition. |
| 5. Great Britain, | Railways. |
| 6. Spain, | Vessels and naval material. |
| 7. Italy, | Mining concessions. |
| 8. United States, | Sectional steel bridges. |

While admitting the purity of motive of the French foreign office and the French minister to Morocco, Mr. Perdicaris says, in concluding his interesting article:

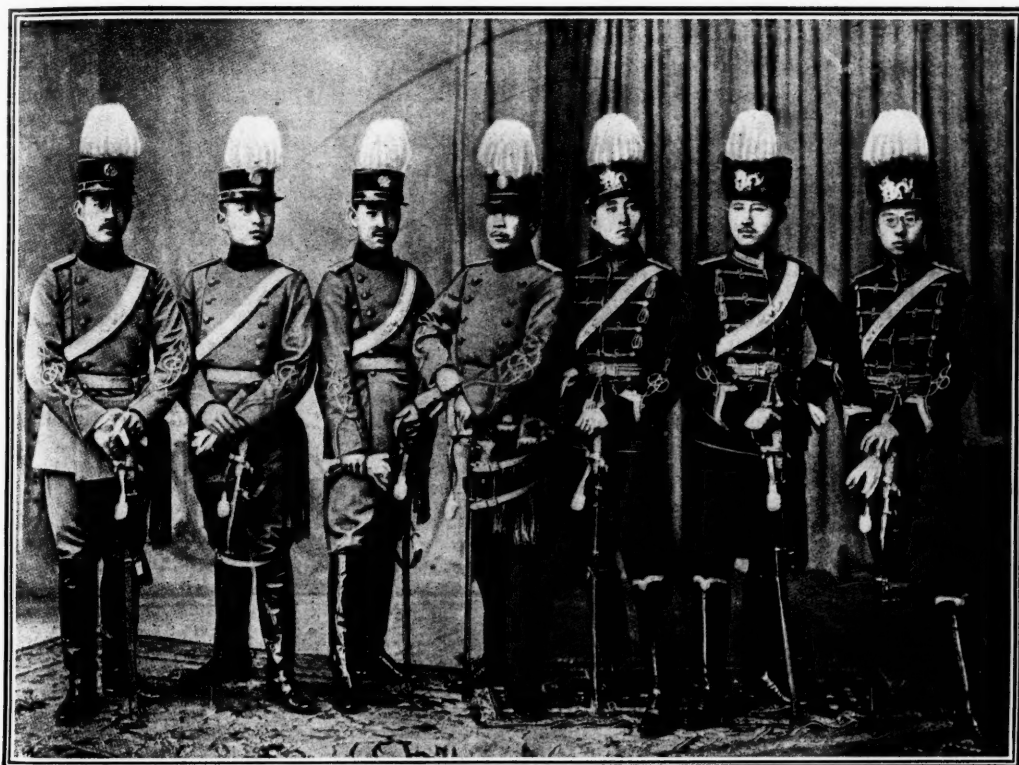
The contention that because France possesses a co-terminous frontier along the Algerian border she has a right to claim absolute and exclusive control, even while she declines all outlay or the assumption of any obligation to maintain law or order, conditions upon whose successful fulfillment the ordinary trade interests of every nation and of the country itself absolutely depend,—such a contention is not worthy a moment's consideration. And we take it that, however inconvenient either to M. Delcassé or to other French statesmen, or even to simple residents in the Sultan's dominions, like the writer, such an incident as the Emperor William's dramatic intervention may have proved, yet it should be realized that the sovereign who controls the German legions was fully justified in asking where he and his merchants were to "come in" under this new process of diplomatic legerdemain favored by M. Declassé and by Lord Lansdowne.

IS JAPAN REALLY PREPARING THE "YELLOW PERIL?"

TO a "French diplomat" who writes in the *Deutsche Revue*, the "yellow peril" is a reality of dire proportions. The Japanese, he believes, are intent upon aggrandizement, achieved by no matter what means. They will find some cause or pretext, he maintains, to wrest from the French, the Dutch, and the Americans their Asiatic possessions. Fanatical, bound by no traditions, either as regards their own self-respect or the interests of other nations, their increase of power bodes evil to the hard-earned progress of Western civilization. "Their advance is a borrowed one,—not like the Western, reached by slow, painful stages.

They are at bottom barbarians whose spiritual growth has not kept pace with their material development."

All the Asiatic peoples now recognize that the axis of the Asiatic world has been shifted. They had resigned themselves to their fate, submitted themselves to the civilizing process, had given up the hope of regaining the lost freedom of the state of nature, and even India, which once had firm faith in Russia, had ceased to hope anything from her; the British nation seemed to be the world-power to which all nations would become tributary. The Japanese successes, first at sea, then by land, struck this enervated world like a cannon-stroke, and Siam, which is led by British sentiment; India, which is under England's dominion; the



THE OYAMAS, NOGIS, AND KUROKIS OF CHINA, WHO ARE BEING EDUCATED IN JAPAN AND GERMANY.

Malay Islands, Java and Sumatra, the Anamites of Anam, Tonquin, and Cochin China, pricked up their ears. Five hundred East Indians at once set out to attend the lectures at the Japanese universities; Siam concluded a compact of amity, of whose provisions Europe has remained ignorant, with Japan; in Singapore, Batavia, Surabaya, Saigon, Hanoi, and Hai-phong the Chinese secret societies have redoubled their precautionary measures and their activity; China has opened its doors to Japanese traders, Japanese officials, and Japanese military instructors; in French Indo-China it was found necessary to prohibit Chinese newspapers and to order the imprisonment of Chinese and Japanese spies.

The eyes of the nations of Asia are now turned upon Japan; upon her they set their hopes. Is not that a sufficiently earnest signal, which the nations of Europe are henceforth bound to notice, and which must make England pause in her course, impelled as she has been by the secret thought that she has become the chosen people of God, the people to whom the entire earth has been promised, and who will one day rule over all races? Japan is not alone, as I have before observed, a strong and organized nation; it is more than that. The Japanese nation, like the English, believes in its mission, and feels called to liberate all the races of Asia, to snatch from the hands of the Europeans all the dominions which they have taken from the natives. This is an exalted mission, and this belief in their destiny is a

fruitful, inspiring idea which is capable of producing heroes and imbuing a whole nation with the fanaticism which constituted the strength of France in the Revolution. Now, a people like the Japanese, which is still near enough to barbarism to be possessed of its brutal energy, its muscles independent of nerves, its frugality, and is at the same time civilized enough to have all those means at its disposal which the other races have in a long course of progress achieved,—a people like that is dangerous; yes, more dangerous than a nation with hundreds of years of civilization behind it, for this people, which has contributed nothing to the great work of humanity, which has received everything from the other races, need have no regard for what has conduced to make it great. It does not harbor in its soul that certain something which creates a feeling of solidarity among all nations that have worked in unison for progress; it does not feel called upon to respect the things that are, has not the human ideals of the old races. If it is impelled by a great idea, it has regard only for what will further that idea, and for nothing beyond it. In a word, it is above all destructive, not conservative; it is a civilized Attila, but nevertheless an Attila.

If Japan should infuse a little of the spirit which now animates her into China, if she should instill into her a feeling of self-confidence, electrify that inert mass, unconscious of its strength,

and hurl it upon India, rising up against England; upon the Sunda Islands, Java and Sumatra, on the brink of revolt against Holland; upon Europe, so divided by the interests of the moment, where nations which are constituted to agree with each other, to arrive at an understanding, dream of acquiring dominions containing a few million people,—what will the future of the white race be?

Of Western civilization they have the arms, the garb, the equipments, but their spirit has remained Japanese, and the civilization which they are capable of founding will not be a daughter of ours, which has educated them,—it will be a disfigurement, a bastard form of it, an adaptation of a sort whereby the moral and intellectual fate of mankind will be changed.

What China Is Learning from the War.

The new attitude of China toward Western civilization, due largely to the Russo-Japanese war, is intelligently analyzed and described by L. N. di Giura, of Peking, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). He thinks that the events of the Boxer revolution showed the Chinese people that they must become a power respected, if not feared, by other nations if they wished to maintain their independence, but the government, willfully blind, has been slow to change the existing order. The same events convinced the people that the Japanese troops conducted themselves best at Tientsin and Peking. Instead of pillaging shops, desecrating temples, and vexing the populace, they devoted themselves to maintaining order, and their quarter was a secure haven for returning fugitives. The Chinese had called the Japanese "*wo-jeu*," or "dwarfs," but they learned to admire their valor and sturdiness. Two years ago, Japanese were called to China to organize the gendarmerie. After Na-Tung, of the Peking ministry of foreign affairs, had made a voyage to Japan, many Chinese students were sent there, though the government rather followed than led in the pro-Japanese movement. Then came the Russian occupation of the ancestral home of the Manchus, which, threatening to be permanent, rendered the Chinese furious, though they would perhaps have patiently endured it if the Japanese had not undertaken to oust the intruders, and thus vastly increased Chinese sympathy for them, and also suggested that China might do as much if only organized.

The writer says that the highest functionaries in China are ignoramuses who are simply saturated with Confucianism and the ancient prejudices; but those who have traveled, especially the younger element, realize what China might be if organized after European fashion. Study

in Japan and the founding of modern schools in China have created a young reform party, not favorable to foreigners, but anxious that China should take her proper place among nations. The government gropes its way and establishes new organisms without destroying the old. For instance, the *Lien-ping-chu*, or committee of national defense, has been founded side by side with the *Ping-pu*, or decadent ministry of war, as a result of the lessons of the present war. Hence, Japanese officers have been called to reform the Chinese army. Military students at the Military School of the South have been ordered to cut off their queues, and European uniforms have been planned. A loan of about three million dollars, at high interest (12 per cent.), has been arranged by the viceroy of Pe-chi-li for making over the army of that province. Only the best European arms and equipment are now acquired.

The awakening of a national spirit is quite largely due to the students in Japan, who are spectators of the joyous self-sacrifice of patriotic young soldiers and the rejoicings over victories. For instance, they have issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of the province of Szechuen, saying that if they do not cease giving concessions for mines and railroads to foreigners some fine day the Russians will quietly make themselves masters of the region. To prevent the possibility of the railroad from Chung-ching-fu to Hankow passing from the hands of the Belgian promoters to the Russians, the students organized a syndicate to buy up all the bonds and keep it under Chinese control,—a significant sign of a new spirit. The Chinese newspapers continually report the refusal of concessions to foreign applicants.

Another significant event is the calling of a diet of all the mandarins down to the fifth grade to discuss affairs of state. Opposition to this was promptly overruled by the Emperor himself. In the eyes of the government, China will not change, but only modify herself sufficiently to carry out more successfully the same old programme,—China for the Chinese, and away with the foreigners. Signor di Giura believes, however, that, unwittingly, the government is preparing the way for revolution when the Dowager-Empress dies. When the students return home from Japan, America, and Europe and find that the government can only give them the task of lighting the pipe of some fat official or carrying in visiting cards, they will feel themselves superior to the governing functionaries and will form a nucleus of discontent which may overturn the old governmental edifice.

JAPAN'S TRAFALGAR.

THE European reviews are publishing analytical articles on Admiral Togo's triumph in the battle of the Sea of Japan. These articles do not add much to what has already been written and presented in this magazine, but one study, from the standpoint of a British naval authority, appearing in the *United Service Magazine*, of London, is noteworthy. It is Admiral Sir E. R. Fremantle, G.C.B., who writes. He points out that by some curious psychological turn public attention has always been engrossed with the decisive results obtained in battles on shore,—Tours, Hastings, Waterloo, and Sedan,—while in reality the more decisive battles in the history of the world have been those on sea. The admiral mentions Actium, Lepanto, the defeat of the Armada, Trafalgar, and Navarino. The battle of the Sea of Japan, he declares, has been a victory more complete than Trafalgar. It is not only a victory,—it is a conquest. After a brief consideration of the principal sea fights since Trafalgar (Navarino, Lissa, the Yalu, and Santiago), Admiral Fremantle proceeds to discuss the battle of the Sea of Japan from the standpoint of a naval tactician. He commends Admiral Rozhstvenski for his considerable skill and seamanship in bringing his armada to the far East in such comparatively good shape, con-

sidering his lack of support and supplies. He condemns the Russian commander, however, for so dividing up his ships that none of his units were homogeneous. Turning his attention to Admiral Togo and his tactics, this British naval writer cannot admire too much the Japanese commander's self-restraint in awaiting battle in his own waters. The Japanese admiral's maneuvers are characterized as "sheep-dog tactics," which were certainly justified by the results. On this point, Admiral Fremantle compliments Admiral Togo highly. He says:

It is doubtful whether any other course of action would have achieved such complete success, but they could not have been safely adopted without the advantage of speed, and with a less perfectly trained fleet. Rozhstvenski's formation, on the other hand, was essentially faulty, and he had set himself an impossible task in endeavoring to force his way north in the face of Togo's superior fleet, encumbered with non-fighting ships. These he should have got rid of, either leaving them behind till he had disposed of Togo or sending them around Japan to endeavor to reach Vladivostok by the Tsugaru or Pèrouse straits. The mere mention of these alternatives shows how desperate was Rozhstvenski's position. As it was, he fought in an order of sailing unsuitable for action in the endeavor to protect his non-fighting ships, while comparatively weak-protected cruisers appear to have been mixed up with the battleships.

ONE OF THE SECRETS OF JAPANESE VICTORIES.

A WELL-KNOWN author and journalist, and former member of the Japanese House of Representatives, Mr. S. Shiga, contributes to the *Keizai Zasshi* an article in which he gives an analysis of the Japanese soldier, stating his opinion that all of Japan's success is not due to the spiritual and moral education founded upon the system of *bushido*, or Japanese chivalry. He points out the fact that in the early stages of the siege of Port Arthur the Japanese were unsuccessful. They were not combating animate beings called Russians, he says, but "a huge, inanimate matter, consisting of enormous works of iron and steel, and of an appalling mass of rocks and stones." While the importance of the Japanese system of warlike training is very great, it has been overestimated, Mr. Shiga believes. It has been permitted to overshadow the yet greater importance of the application of scientific knowledge and invention to the attack of strongly fortified garrisons. Mr. Shiga gives an account of the barbed wires, the entangling nets of electric wires, the numberless mines, the

explosives spreading nauseating odors, the moats often fifteen meters deep, and the appalling batteries, all of which conspired to baffle the assault of the Japanese. To cope with this stupendous work of defense the attacking force was obliged to seek for the help of the new instruments and machines, the devising of which taxed heavily upon the brains of the Japanese inventors and scientists. As the destruction of the Port Arthur batteries was mainly due to the application of science, so was the sinking of most Russian warships that sought refuge in the harbor of the port. Were it not for their accurate knowledge of mathematics, how could the Japanese gunners shell those ships of the enemy of which they could not get the slightest glimpse from behind the hills at Port Arthur that sheltered them against the shells of the besieging force? Indeed, the accuracy of their marks was so marvelous that many a Chinese in the invested town declared that the Japanese shells had eyes which seemed to see exactly what they were after. For all these results, Mr.

Shiga believes, the Japanese army is indebted to the power of science.

Even if she have to sacrifice *bushido*, declares Mr. Shiga, Japan is bound to foster the development of science. It is fortunate for Japan that in the present struggle her adversary is Russia, "the most backward of the civilized countries of Europe." If, however, Japan should find herself confronted by an enemy far more advanced in scientific attainments, "she will have nothing but regret if she reverences *bushido* as all the soul of Japan."

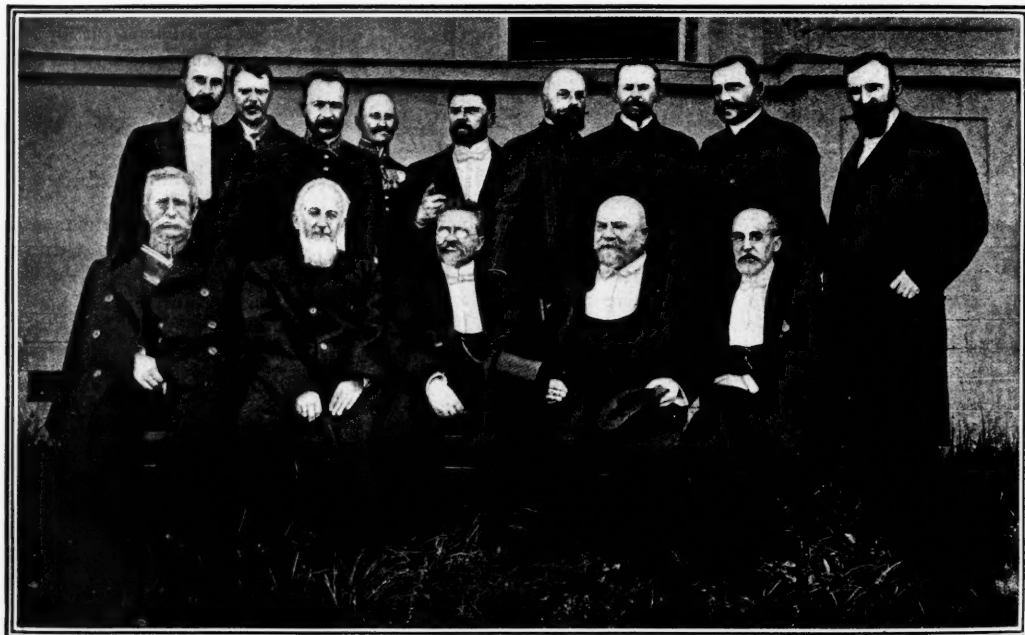
After praising the generosity of the Russians in many instances of which he was an eye-witness at Port Arthur, Mr. Shiga goes on to say that the Japanese people are not essentially generous.

Pluck and spirit are the basic elements of Japanese character to which Japan is mainly indebted for her invariable successes in the warfares with foreign countries. It is feared that the encouragement of broad-mindedness and equanimity, which are essential to a really great nation, would cause the decay of the militant spirit and the indomitableness of the nation.

THE RUSSIAN BUREAUCRACY AND THE LABOR QUESTION.

ONE of the most clear-thinking and modern of the Russian economic writers, Mr. Victor Portugalov, in a recent issue of the St. Petersburg weekly *Nedelya*, reviews the second edition of a rather famous book on the labor question in Russia, written some years ago by Litvinov-Falinski. This is practically the only work in Russian containing even an attempt at a systematic review of the imperial legislation

on the labor question. As Mr. Portugalov points out, the author, in giving an account of Russian factory legislation, has endeavored to hold fast to the opinions which have guided the bureaucracy in its enactment of laws. The author himself is a factory inspector, and he has really given a digest (sometimes a verbal reproduction) of the official rulings on the relations of labor and capital. In his comment on the work, Mr.



THE DELEGATES FROM THE MOSCOW AND ST. PETERSBURG ZEMSTVO CONGRESS, WHICH ON JUNE 20 PRESENTED TO THE CZAR A NATIONAL MEMORIAL FOR POLITICAL AND LABOR REFORM.

(Beginning at the top and reading to the right, following are the members: N. N. Zvov, of Saratov; F. I. Rodichev, of Tver; Count Zvov, of Tula; F. A. Golovine, of Moscow; Kovalevsky, of Kharkov; Count Dolgoroukov, of Rossisk; Count Troubetskoi, of Moscow [who spoke for the delegates]; Novossiltzev, of Temnikovsk; and Count Chakovski, of Yaroslav. The bottom row, beginning from the left, are Baron P. Z. Korv, of St. Petersburg; Count Heyden, of Pskov [the president of the delegation]; J. J. Petrunkevitch, of Tver; M. P. Federov, of St. Petersburg; and A. N. Nikotine, of St. Petersburg.)

Portugalov says: "It is, of course, well known that our bureaucracy denies the existence of every useful phenomenon when it first manifests itself." The very existence of the labor problem was not recognized by the Russian bureaucracy until last year, the chinovniki having insisted until that time that only patriarchal relations existed between Russian employers and their workmen, and that the entire "labor question" in Russia was invented by evil-minded persons.

As early as 1870, the review writer points out, a labor commission, known as the Ignatyev commission, was appointed for the elaboration of rules relating to the hiring of workmen and servants. After several years of sitting, however, no agreement could be reached, and the decision was, therefore, that it was premature to form general enactments on the hiring of labor. That is, "the legislation imperatively demanded by the events of 1870 turned out to be premature in 1880." Several other commissions were appointed, but did nothing. The first one to accomplish any real results was the one under the chairmanship of the late minister of the interior, Plehve. The work of this commission Mr. Litvinov-Falinski declares to have been "noble and timely." Whatever good there was in it, however, the re-

viewer insists, was forced from the bureaucracy in order to avoid a recurrence of labor agitation which might prove a menace to the "established order." Indeed, its entire point of view was that of the policeman.

It thus becomes clear that to the bureaucracy the labor question is, first of all, a question of "order," in the police sense of the word; and in the adjustment of the various conflicts between labor and capital the bureaucracy endeavors, in the first place, to protect its own interests, and it is because of this that our entire labor legislation is permeated with the spirit of paternalism and surveillance, with the attempt to deprive the groups interested of any opportunity for independent, active participation in the gratification of their needs. The entire treatment of labor legislation by the bureaucracy is little more than juggling.

With a great flourish of trumpets (the trumpeting is usually done by the *Novoye Vremya* and its kin), it enacts a law for the ostensible protection of labor, but really aiming at the "establishment of order." Immediately afterward it hands over the workmen to the tender mercies of the exploiters, through the previously established loopholes in the law. It thus satisfies the class and police point of view. It may be assumed that after the recent occurrences among our workmen the bureaucracy will not try to enforce this system.

RELIGIOUS TOLERATION AND THE JEWISH QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

THE Czar's rescript granting freedom of worship and conscience to thirteen million dissenters, sectarians, and others has been criticised even in Russian papers as falling short of the ideal of religious freedom and toleration as understood in Europe and America. It has been pointed out that, for one thing, the reform "does nothing for the Jews." The political writer for the leading radical monthly, the *Russkoye Bogatstvo*, discusses the political and economic aspects of the Jewish question in connection with the religious reforms. The Jews, he says, do get something under the rescript, but they do not get what they are primarily entitled to, and what the country must grant them at once if it is to turn its face in the direction of culture, progress, and freedom at all. Indeed, of all problems pressing for solution in Russia, the Jewish one, says this advanced monthly, the organ of the "Left," as the conservative papers call it, is the most vital and burning. The Jews, it is true, may worship in their own way, and certain restrictions as to the building of synagogues and the formation of

religious societies have been removed. Besides, many thousands of "converted" Jews are now permitted to return to their real faith. But these are mere trifles. The great sin and blunder of Russia, says this magazine, with regard to her Jewish population is found in the denial of equal rights of citizenship to millions whose religion is not proscribed or persecuted. Here is the anomaly, the crying contradiction,—it is lawful to profess Judaism, but he who does profess it is yet treated as an outlaw and deprived of the essential attributes of citizenship. He is confined within a "pale;" he is prohibited from engaging in certain occupations or from practising the liberal professions. He may not own land or cultivate it in large areas; his children are excluded from educational institutions.

On what ground are all these restrictions imposed upon the Jewish subjects of the Czar? They are not aliens; they have been in the country ever since Russia acquired the provinces they inhabit. They have not forfeited their rights through rebellion. Whatever injustice and oppression Russia has been guilty

of toward Poland, Finland, and other subject populations (and she has been guilty of much injustice) may be attributed to political error; in the case of the Jew, the injustice is morally as well as politically reprehensible.

Anti-Semitic organs affect to believe, continues the writer, that the anti-Jewish measures are economic, not racial or religious. The Jew is accused of plundering and "exploiting" the peasant and monopolizing the wealth of the country; but what are the facts? The millions of Jews in the pale are impoverished, and reduced to a state of wretchedness bordering on pauperism. In spite of the severest and most exhausting toil, they cannot make a decent living. An elaborate investigation covering twenty-five provinces and over seven hundred thousand families showed that in recent years nearly 19 per cent. of the Jews have been compelled to apply for charitable relief. That is, one man in five is a pauper, as against one man in twenty of the Christian population. In some governments the percentage of destitution or pauperism among the Jews rises to 25.

In view of these figures, asks the writer, what a mockery it is to charge the Jews of Russia

with robbing the peasants of their substance, and how absurd it is to say that they must be denied ordinary rights of industry, property, and residence in order to prevent their absorption of the wealth and resources of the empire!

The conclusion reached by the writer is that without any further delay Russia must grant the Jews full equality of rights. This alone will realize true religious toleration. But mere negative emancipation,—the withdrawal of galling restrictions,—will not answer the requirements of a situation produced by a long period of discrimination, persecution, and cruelty. When the serfs were liberated, the government gave them land; without economic opportunity, emancipation would have been a sham and a delusion. The Jews, likewise, must be provided with means of subsistence.

It is understood that the commission now considering economic reform has passed over the Jewish question as too involved and difficult, and has decided to refer it in its entirety to the national assembly which is shortly to be convoked. Liberal Russia is ready to grant the Jews equal rights and opportunities.

IS THERE NEW HOPE FOR POLAND?

RECALLING the fact that the last Polish uprising was coincident with the central year of the American Civil War, Mr. David Bell Macgowan, in a very instructive article in the *July Century*, draws a comparison which is very graphic. He asks us to assume that the Confederate States are still under martial law. Then imagine such a state of affairs as the following:

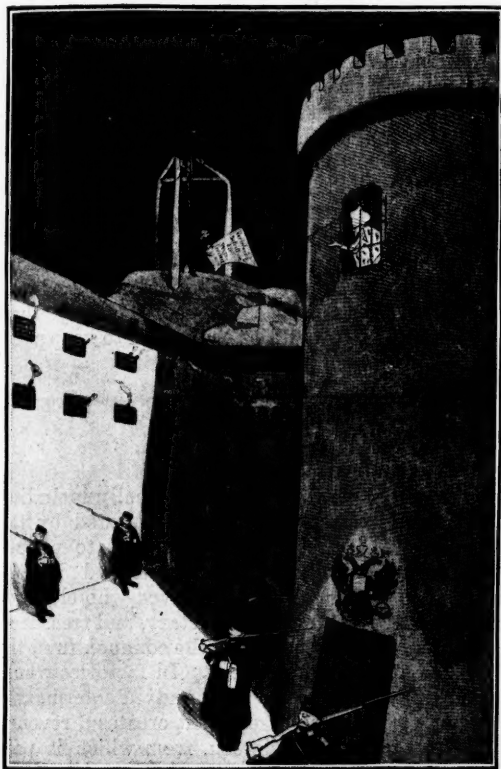
All Southerners excluded from offices with salaries exceeding five hundred dollars a year, and the entire South run by corrupt "carpet-baggers" animated by racial hatred. Scarcely a new school or post-office opened since the inauguration of Lincoln. The States without Legislatures; counties and cities handed over to Washington appointees; the courts intrusted to aliens ignorant of the laws of the land. The press under a censorship as capricious as it is severe,—the newspapers forbidden even to copy sympathetic articles from Northern journals; the theaters controlled by the police. Railway tariffs discriminating against home products, and taxes in some instances eight times as high as in the North, and devoted mainly to the support of the national government, which makes no concealment of its policy of encouraging racial and class discord. Then imagine Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri, southern Indiana, and southern Illinois ruled in the same manner, with a view to the suppression of "Copperheads;" suppose persons of Southern descent denied the right of buying, leasing, or farming land in these States, or of bequeathing it except in direct succession, and you will

have a faint notion of the restrictions still imposed, after the lapse of forty years, upon the former grand duchy of Lithuania and Ukraine, which were united to Poland for four hundred years and still have a large Polish-speaking population.

OPPRESSION AS TO RELIGION AND LANGUAGE.

This imperfect comparison takes no account of religious differences felt by those concerned to be as great as between Protestantism and Catholicism, and differences of language as wide as between English and French. Consider, therefore, the following situation:

The Russian language used exclusively in the courts and in public buildings, and in such schools as exist even in teaching Polish, which is forbidden altogether in Lithuania and the Ukraine; Roman Catholic priests, like ticket-of-leave men, forbidden to leave their parishes without police permission, and subject to fine, imprisonment, and deportation if, for instance, they obey their consciences instead of the constables and heed a death-bed call while on a visit away from home, or if some one reports that they read the prayers for the safety of the imperial family with less than due care. A large number of the people having been dragooned into nominal orthodoxy eighty years ago, their descendants are denied the privilege of the religious offices of Catholic clergymen, and therefore those that cannot afford to go abroad for ceremonial purposes prefer to live out of wedlock and to die unshriven.



A GERMAN COMMENT ON GENERAL TREPOV'S REPLY (FOR THE CZAR) TO POLAND'S DEMAND FOR LIBERTIES.

"The Czar promises to all his subjects the same freedom that he enjoys himself. Thanks, awfully!"

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

One would naturally suppose that such conditions could not be endured for more than a generation. One would expect to find the Poles engaging in repeated rebellions. It has not been so. The Poles, continues Mr. Macgowan, have had their schooling of a hard master.

Not only do they not rebel,—they have become modest in their demands. The Finlanders are struggling with fair prospects of success for the restoration of their hereditary constitutional liberties; the Poles would be grateful for such crumbs of freedom as the Russians already enjoy. They ask mainly for teaching that their children can understand, for zemstvo and municipal institutions, for the right to exist as a separate race, and the right to worship God,—I would add the usual phrase, "according to their own consciences," if there were any other way to worship.

WHAT THE POLES WANT.

Mr. Macgowan quotes the following statement of the Polish case from the mouth of a professional man, an influential member of the National Democracy. Why should Poles be loyal? he asked.

Though only one-twelfth of the population of the empire, we are now, December, 1904, supplying 40 per cent. of the troops in Manchuria. Our land taxes are eight times as high as in Russia. The railway tariff on grain is seventy-five kopecks from Odessa to Warsaw; it is ninety-two kopecks from Lublin, a Polish town on the same line of railway, and only a fifth as far as Odessa. This is to give the Russian grain-producers a market at our expense. Here is the report of the department of control for 1899. Any other year would serve as well. The revenues derived from the ten provinces of Poland are stated as 135,000,000 rubles. Of this sum, 37,000,000 was transferred to the imperial treasury, 48,000,000 was expended for the army and the public debt, and only 47,000,000 was allotted to the support of the civil government and for civilizing agencies in Poland. The National Democracy refuses to recognize the obligations of tripartite loyalty. We want future independence, like Hungary. For the present, we demand the recognition of national rights, while remaining in the Russian Empire. This is the programme of the immense majority of the Polish people. The National Democracy is the chief agency for the instruction of the people, particularly the peasants and artisans, in history and geography. It circulates immense numbers of newspapers printed in Galicia. There are special organs for the educated classes, the peasants, the school children.

"Everything in Poland that is worth while is an evasion," Mr. Macgowan was told by a leading barrister.

Everything is done by stealth or bribery, everything takes a side turn. The educational energies of the people are wholly directed in illegal channels. There are educational institutions whose existence is unknown to the government. Inspectors are employed on regular salaries. Young ladies who do not teach are frowned upon in good society.

Last year the Poles were invited to state what they wished to obtain from the government of Russia.

A delegate meeting of one hundred and five persons assembled in the home of a nobleman, under the chairmanship of the Catholic Bishop of Warsaw, and adopted a long memorial for presentation to Prince Mirski. It closed by making the following demands:

1. The use of the Polish language in the schools, courts, and public offices.
2. The appointment of Poles to all public offices.
3. Self-government on an elective basis in town and country, with the retention of the existing commune, or "gmina."
4. Freedom of conscience.

Such were the minimum demands of all the parties, excepting the Social Democrats, the "Bund," and the "Proletariat," as another radical labor party is called. Many of the Liberals and National Democrats were disposed to add a fifth clause,—a national diet and an autonomous government subordinate merely in matters of imperial concern to the authorities at St. Petersburg.

WHAT HAS BEEN GIVEN THEM.

The editor of the *Century* appends to Mr. Macgowan's article the following note:

Since the above article was made ready for the press, the Czar, in a rescript issued May 16, 1905, removed many of the restrictive ordinances from which Poland has suffered. Permission to introduce the Polish and Lithuanian languages into the primary and secondary schools is granted; the assemblies of Polish nobles are reestablished; the purchase of land by Catholic peasants is permitted; and these measures, it is understood, are to be followed by local self-government through the *zemstvo*. Should these reforms be put in force, the result will mark a complete reversal of Russian policy in Poland.

Will Prussia Also Grant Concessions?

Commenting on the Czar's recent ukase granting certain important concessions to the Poles,

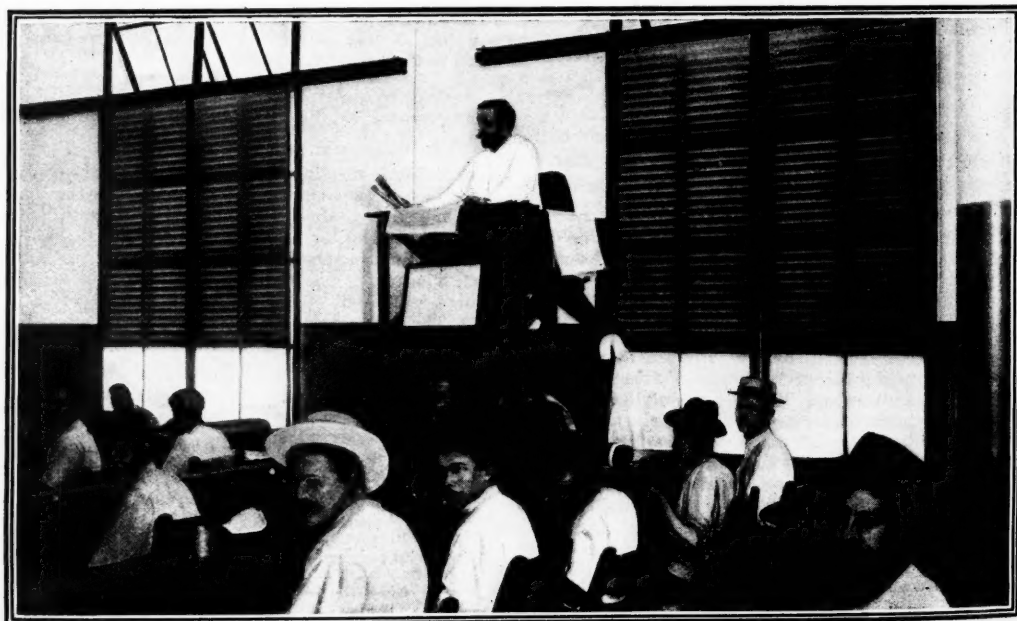
the *Hilfe*, of Berlin (in an article by Herr F. Naumann), declares that the sacrifices of the Russian revolutionist have not, after all, been in vain. If the spirit of the ukase be carried out, says this writer, the Poles in Russia will regain much that they lost after their revolution of 1863. This has so encouraged the Poles, says this writer, that hope of a free Poland in the future has been strengthened. Another significant phase of the situation is the fact that now it will become increasingly difficult for Berlin to continue the forced Germanization of the Poles. If Russia accords more liberty than Prussia, the latter will be compelled to keep pace.

PAID READERS IN CUBAN CIGAR FACTORIES.

LITERATURE and cigar-making are associated in a striking way by a practice which prevails in many of the Havana cigar factories. The employment of paid readers, at good salaries, in these establishments has become a settled custom, interference with which would result only in strikes. The duties of these readers are described in the July *Bookman* by James H. Collins.

The reading occupies three hours daily, commonly in the afternoon. Half of this time is

given to the newspapers (occasionally including American papers, which are translated by the reader as he goes along), and half to novels. The choice of reading is controlled by the workers, or *tabaqueros*, themselves, who elect for the purpose a president, secretary, and treasurer. Each cigarmaker pays into the common fund the sum of fifteen cents a week. In factories where from three hundred to five hundred cigarmakers are employed, this assessment creates a revenue of from \$50 to \$75 a week, from which is paid



SEÑOR MUNOZ READING IN THE CABAÑAS FACTORY.

the reader's weekly salary of from \$30 to \$60, as well as the cost of books and newspapers. Each day the president and secretary go over daily papers with the reader, marking what is to be read aloud.

THE CHOICE OF NOVELS.

The selection of novels is determined by popular vote.

The reading of a book like "Quo Vadis" takes about three weeks, while shorter works may be finished in two weeks or ten days. The reader judges the period required for a given book with great nicety, and a few days before he is to finish one the secretary holds an election to determine what novel shall be taken up next. Not all of the *tabaqueros* can read themselves. But each learns of certain books through friends, or sees them in one of the bookshops, so that upon the day of election each has a preference. As many as fifty different novels may be proposed at one of the elections, but the choice usually centers on three or four of wide note. "Quo Vadis" was elected by 180 votes in one of the Cabañas factory's *galeras* recently, defeating "Père Goriot" by 30 ballots. The choice falls oftenest on modern novels, and those of Spain are preferred because a wider range is possible. Perez Galdós is a favorite author, and each new Spanish celebrity in fiction quickly gets his hearing in the Havana factories.

Among English novels read are "Vanity Fair," "Oliver Twist," "A Tale of Two Cities," and others of greater melodramatic interest, as the books of Wilkie Collins and Hugh Conway. Señor Muñoz, chief reader in the Cabañas factory, had never heard of Hall Caine or Marie Corelli, and said that only such English works as are to be had in Spanish come up for choice. Some of the English poets are favorites, Byron in particular being read repeatedly. Poetry is a staple in the reading, long poems frequently being chosen instead of novels. Shakespeare is not unknown. Only one American book has ever had the honor of repeated reading in Havana cigar factories, the readers say, and that fell into disuse about ten years ago. It was "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Some books are elected and reelected, just as favorite plays are revived. Victor Hugo is an unflin-

favorite, while no year passes in any Havana cigar factory, it is said, without a reading of "Don Quixote."

THE CANDIDATE'S ORDEAL.

Men who seek positions as readers are tested by methods not unlike those of the Civil Service Commission.

When it becomes known that a certain *galera* is without a reader, all the men of that calling seeking a place come and occupy the reader's box for a short test period, usually an hour. The trial period lasts a week, and as each candidate presents himself the president gives him a novel marked at the place where the last aspirant left off. At the stroke of a bell he ceases and steps down, to be replaced by another candidate. Many of the Havana readers are men of note in their singular profession, and have been identified with one *galera* for years, gaining reputation for their superior rendition. Others rise out of the ranks of the *tabaqueros*, first as candidates, then as readers, often sinking back again ignominiously. At the end of the week's test a reader is chosen by general ballot from all the candidates. When the *tabaqueros* are dissatisfied with their reader, a petition signed by at least ten men may be handed to the president, who then causes the box to be vacated and a new reader chosen. The outgoing reader is never told that his rendition has been unsatisfactory, however. With Spanish delicacy the president informs him that it has been decided to have no more reading for a time, and thus his feelings are spared. All books and newspapers purchased are subsequently sold at half-price to *tabaqueros* who may want them. No library is maintained.

The custom of reading in the cigar factories was established about 1878 by the distinguished Cuban poet, Martínez, who was at that time a *tabaquero*. Secretary Morna, of the Cuban Senate, was formerly a reader, and so was Señor Ambrosio Berges, who is one of the orators of the Cuban House. Señor Victor Muñoz, editor of *El Mundo*, one of the Havana daily papers, has been a reader for many years, both in Cabañas and Havana.

THE WORLD'S MOST DIFFICULT MOUNTAIN-CLIMBING.

WHAT is the most difficult peak known to mountain-climbers? Not the Matterhorn, says George D. Abraham in the *August Cosmopolitan*. That mountain has a record of tragedy, but there are other heights which mountaineers regard as far more perilous. Such are the "aiguilles" of Mont Blanc, which only experienced mountain-climbers have attempted, and then after careful preparation. Mr. Abraham, who is a member of the English Climbers' Club and the Swiss and German Alpine clubs, tells the story of a climb that he made in late autumn to the pinnacle of the famous Aiguille de Grépon.

After narrating a start up the mountain-side made long before dawn by himself, a guide, and a porter, Mr. Abraham proceeds to describe the first of the real difficulties that confronted these intrepid mountaineers:

The huge bastion of the North Peak looked absolutely impossible to direct assault, but across the couloir to our right an almost vertical crack, some seventy feet high, led up between a large detached slab of rock and the face of the cliff. It actually overhung in its lower portion, and the hand-holds in its inner recesses were insidiously covered with flaky ice. This was the well-known "Cheminée Mummery."

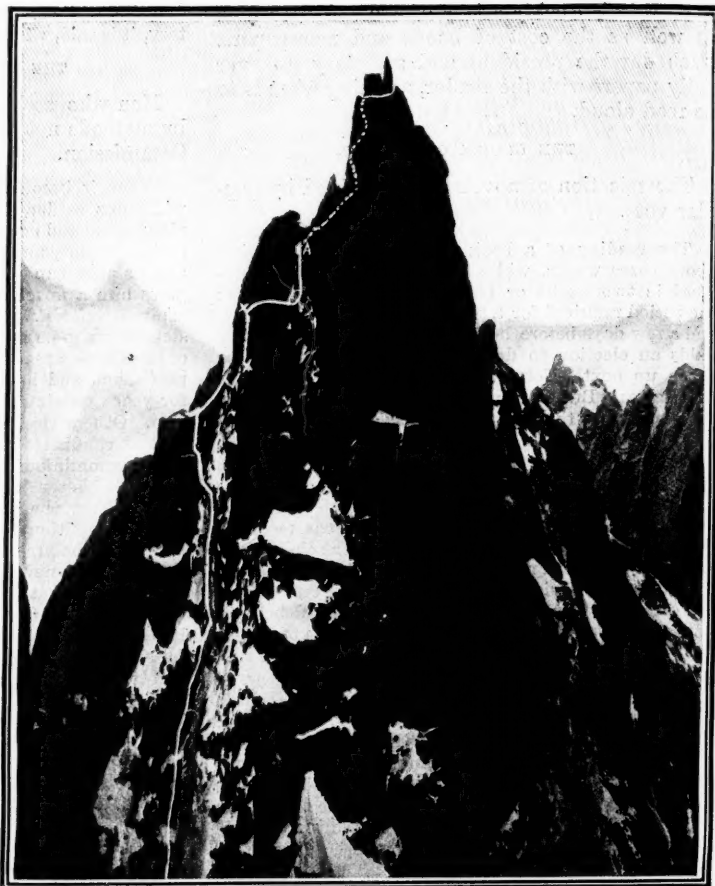
There being proverbial authority that "many hands

make labor light," we assumed that this applied also to heads and shoulders. Acting on this deduction, we crossed to the foot of the crack, where Amand skillfully acted as a sort of flying buttress and held me against the rocks while Simond mounted on my shoulders, and by a final kick-off from the top of my head was able to hoist himself half-way up the difficult part. Struggling carefully up for some ten feet, until a shelving ledge conveniently placed as hold for the left foot served as a resting-place, he recouped his strength for the upper portion. This proved easier than expected, for by this time the warm sun had dispelled the mist and its welcome rays had thawed the ice from the tiny ledges which serve as hand and foot holds.

From this point on the route led up steep cliffs, now in the shade and again in bright sunlight, five thousand feet above the Mer de Glâce. Finally, a broad pinnacle seemed to bar farther passage, but the guide was able to lead the way up its smooth front. A ledge on the other side afforded a pathway to the base of the last peak to be ascended. There a series of narrow chimneys led up to a diminutive ledge, where the climbers were forced out on to an upright nose of granite. Two small vertical cracks, an inch or two wide and rising parallel about a yard apart, supplied the only available holds. The culmination of this hazardous climb may best be told in Mr. Abraham's own words :

With the right foot jammed in one crack and the hands gripping the other firmly, I scrambled cautiously up until a slab could be reached, where the hand-holds were just sufficient to make one feel the desperate nature of the situation. To leave the friendly cracks and allow one's body to swing steadily out between earth and sky on those holds was the crux of this portion. However, a steady movement to the left brought a satisfying knob of rock within reach, and by severe muscular effort the body could be raised to the top of the buttress. It was a mystery to me how Simond led up this portion. Truly, there is much to learn in the art of rock-climbing.

The main difficulties were now over, and a struggle up another chimney landed us safely at the summit.



ROUTE (INDICATED BY WHITE LINE) FOLLOWED IN CLIMBING THE AIGUILLE DE GRÉPON.

As we stood on its apex and gazed across at the glorious array of Alpine giants which crouched all around on their glacier beds we appreciated to the full the feelings described by Tennyson :

"The joy of life in steepness overcome
And victories of ascent, and looking down
On all that had looked down on us,
In breathing nearer heaven."

The route of descent lay down the south face of the peak, and consisted mainly of a series of climbs down hitched ropes. A number of *pitons* driven into cracks in the rocks enabled the climbers to secure the rope and pull it down after them, as they had done previously in the Great Gap. They became tired of this process, and found it a great relief to gain the snow-covered rocks below the peak. After a scramble over the soft snow of the glacier, they stood once more on the loose rocks of the moraine.

THE NEW RAILROAD BRIDGE OVER THE ZAMBESI.

A STUDY of the entire Rhodesian railroad system, with special attention to the engineering work, is contributed to the German magazine *Umschau* (Frankfort-on-the-Main) by Dr. Faerg. A glance at this system will readily demonstrate, says this writer, in what a wonderful way the English engineer has solved the problem of building a railroad at once economical and attractive to the tourist. The line begun at Kimberley in 1890 was constructed to Bulawayo in 1897. After the close of the Boer war, the railroad made great strides, until the line was completed to Beira, a port on the sea, and had already begun to tap that wonderful country with its enormous mineral and other resources. The scenery along this line is magnificent.

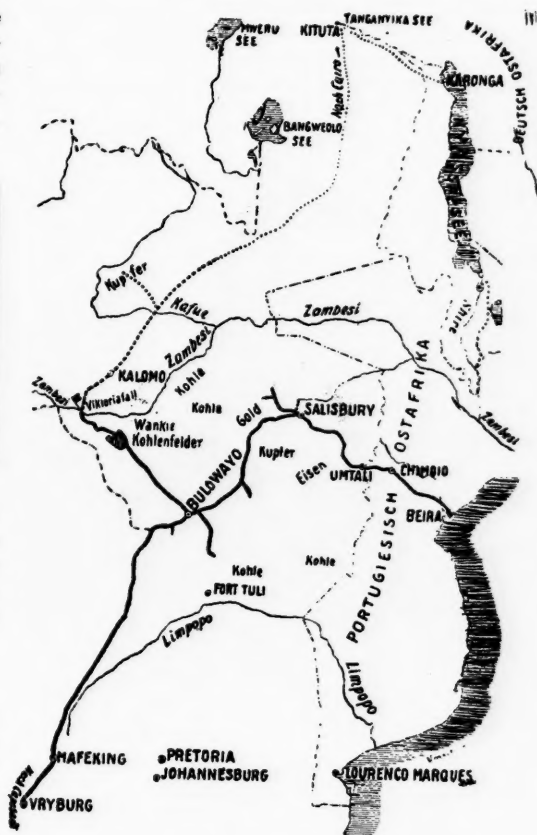
With a connection made over the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi River an important link would be established in the Cape to Cairo railroad. On the completion of this connection between the Victoria Falls and Lake Tanganyika the Mediterranean Sea will at last be in direct railroad communication with Cape Town.

THE HIGHEST BRIDGE IN THE WORLD.

The wonderful bridge over the Zambesi River at Victoria Falls, already under construction (and which is promised to be open for traffic this month), will have a total length of 660 feet, and will cross the river at an altitude of 520 feet. This bridge is therefore the highest in

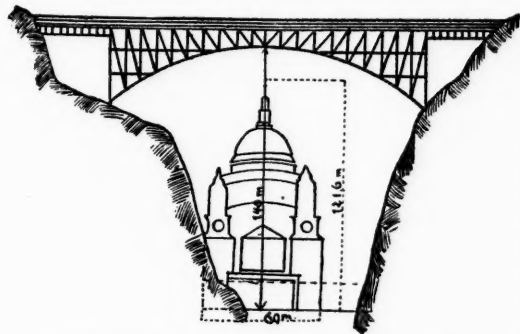
the world,—much higher than the Brooklyn Bridge, the Lansdowne Bridge, or that over the Firth of Forth. St. Paul's Cathedral, the highest church building in the world, might be built under the bridge and there would still be plenty

Victoria.	
Breadth, 5,526 feet.	
Height, 455 feet.	Niagara.
	Breadth, 2,025 feet.
	Height, 163 feet.



CENTRAL AFRICAN LAKE REGION.

(Showing the country through which the new railroad runs to the sea.—From a map printed in the *Umschau*.)



A COMPARISON OF THE NEW ZAMBESI RAILROAD BRIDGE WITH ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, LONDON.

of room between its dome and the roadway, which has been so chosen that the traveler may look from the train-window and see the entire fall in all its beauty. As to the size of this fall, it is sufficient, perhaps, to say that it is three times as high as Niagara and twenty times as broad. The construction of the bridge is an engineering triumph. It was built by the aid of electrical cable wagons, which delivered the material ten tons at a time. All this material had to be transported by sea from England, and then overland from Cape Town.

RIDER HAGGARD, EXPLORER, AUTHOR, AND LAND COMMISSIONER.

AN extended character sketch of Mr. H. Rider Haggard is one of Mr. William T. Stead's personal contributions to the *English Review of Reviews*. Upon Mr. Haggard's return to England after his recent tour of the United States investigating the Salvation Army colonies in this country, an extended account of his work was presented to the British Government.



MR. H. RIDER HAGGARD.

Mr. Haggard visited many portions of this country and Canada, and was especially interested in the vacant-land cultivation in Philadelphia, and in the Salvation Army farm colonies in California and Colorado. He was promised by the Canadian premier a land grant in Canada for experiments. Mr. Stead traces the novelist-economist's career in all its phases. He points out that Mr. Haggard, while British-born, began his life in South Africa, and that he comes of Scandinavian stock. In 1875, while still in his teens, he went to Natal as secretary to Sir Henry Bulwer. He did some fighting in Africa, and after the disaster at Majuba Hill the Transvaal abandonment convention was signed in his house. He then left South Africa and began to publish his books on life in that part of the world, his first book being "*Cetewayo and His White Neighbors*" (1882). Mr. Haggard's entrance into the field of literature was with a

purely imaginary description of an operation in a hospital, written when a child. He had never witnessed an operation, or been in a hospital, but he won the prize. His first novel, "*Dawn*," was published in 1884, and five hundred copies were sold. Then followed "*The Witch's Head*," and then "*King Solomon's Mines*." His great success was "*She*," which he wrote in six weeks. Very close to a million copies of this novel were sold.

The story grew, like Topsy, under his pen. On its appearance it was hailed with enthusiasm. It shares with Sherlock Holmes the first place in popularity, and like Sir Conan Doyle, who had to resuscitate Sherlock Holmes, so in response to the impatient calls of innumerable readers, more imperious even than "*She who must be obeyed*," the immortal queen is now with us once more in the story of "*Ayesha*," which is now running through the *Windsor Magazine*.

It has been only during the past fifteen years that Mr. Haggard has become an agricultural economist. He is devoted to the land, and he is probably now one of the most intelligent and lucid writers on agriculture. His two books, "*The Farmer's Year*" and "*The Gardener's Year*," are "full of the fascination, the flavor, and the fragrance of rural life." In his garden at Ditchingham, between Norwich and Bungay, Mr. Haggard grows everything from cabbages to orchids. The work of which he is most proud, and to which he has devoted four years of incessant labor, is his survey of "rural England." He traveled all over the United Kingdom, interviewing farmers everywhere, and embodied the result of his observations in "two of the most interesting, fact-crammed surveys of contemporary England that have ever been published." With the help of fifteen hundred dollars subscribed by the Rhodes trustees, he set out, on behalf of the British Government, as a special commissioner "to inspect and report upon the conditions and character of the agricultural and industrial settlements which have been established there by the Salvation Army with a view to the transmigration of suitable persons from the great cities of the United States to the land and the formation of agricultural communities." The net result of his interviews and investigations are embodied in a scheme which he has drawn up, the adoption of which is strongly urged upon the British Government. He summarizes his suggestions as follows:

1. That the interest of a loan, or loans, of an amount to be fixed hereafter, should be guaranteed by the imperial government, or by the imperial and certain colo-

nial governments jointly, if that is thought desirable and can be arranged.

2. That the poor-law authorities in the large cities of Great Britain should be approached in order to ascertain whether they would be prepared to make a *per capita* contribution for every selected family of which the burden was taken off the local rates.

3. That a permanent officer should be appointed by the imperial government, to be known as the superintendent of land settlements, whose duties and responsibilities I have sketched out above.

4. That the Salvation Army, or any other well-established and approved social, charitable, or religious organization, should be deputed to carry out the work of selecting, distributing, and organizing the settlers on land colonies anywhere within the boundaries of the British Empire, who should remain in charge of such organization until all liabilities were paid.

5. That no title to land should be given to any colonist until he had discharged these liabilities, on which he should pay 5 per cent. interest and 1 per cent. sinking fund, recoverable in an agreed period of years.

6. That the possibility of establishing similar colonies in the United Kingdom should be carefully considered.

7. That, if these suggestions are approved, a bill, to be designated the "National Land Settlements Act," embodying and giving life to them, should be laid before Parliament.

In elaborating these suggestions he proposes that 7,500 persons should be sent out—or 1,500 families—to occupy the 360 square miles of fertile Canadian land promised as a free grant by the Canadian government. He thinks that they could be planted out at a cost of £200 per family. This would require a loan of £300,000, which the state could raise at 3 per cent. and make a profit by charging them 5 per cent. plus 1 per cent. sinking fund, which would enable them to become owners of an unencumbered freehold in thirty three-years.

THE ECONOMIC REGENERATION OF IRELAND.

EVIDENCES are not wanting that a slow but thorough economic and industrial evolution is taking place in Ireland. One of the very hopeful signs is the increasing frequency of local industrial exhibitions. The leading manufacturers and merchants of Limerick at a recent meeting decided to hold such a display in the summer of each year, designed to embrace all the industries of Munster and Connaught. Limerick is the natural center of the two provinces, situated as it is on a splendid waterway, and is the junction of five railroad systems connecting the south and the west. Limerick's industries, though still considerable, have greatly declined, but would be bound to benefit by such an exhibition, which would tend to revive some of the decayed manufactures and stimulate the existing ones toward increased enterprise and greater prosperity.

The agricultural and technical progress of the Emerald Isle during the past five years, since the creation of the department of agricultural and technical instruction, is discussed statistically in the latest annual report of the department, which has just been issued. A digest of this report is given by United States Consul Knabenshue, in a recent *Consular Daily*. It shows that the fundamental idea of helping self-help has taken a firm grasp upon the local county committees of the board, and that satisfactory progress is being made, especially in technical instruction at Belfast. The agricultural work is divided into the betterment of methods and the improvement of breeds of live stock. The

most effective of the plans thus far introduced for agricultural improvement is the employment of traveling instructors,—the equivalent of the American Farmers' Institute. In certain places there has grown an increased demand for a more regular and fixed course of instruction, for the benefit of young farmers, and at seven centers, five of them in Ulster, what is practically a winter school of agriculture has been established in which a regular course of instruction is given in tillage, stock-breeding, veterinary hygiene, poultry-keeping, and elementary agricultural science. There are now 30 poultry instructresses at work, and the department distributed 40,875 dozen eggs of pure-bred fowls from 392 stations during the year. There are 14 instructors in horticulture, an increase of 5 since the previous year. Under their direction 170,000 young fruit trees were distributed within the year, and 8,000 kitchen gardens "improved beyond recognition," as the board states. Energetic work has been done in arousing the farmers to the commercial value of fruit-growing. The report shows great progress in technical instruction in cities and towns. There were 40,000 pupils in attendance during the year 1903-04. In addition, 8,600 pupils received instruction in experimental science, etc., in secondary day schools supported by the science and art grants. In centers where three or four years ago no instruction of the kind existed there are now largely and regularly attended schools. Even British journals are publishing hearty praise for the work of the local Irish authorities.

Ireland's Salvation at Last: In Her Bogs!

In the *World's Work and Play*, Mr. R. J. Lynn describes a recent invention which may at last make it possible to utilize the wealth in Irish bogs,—in other words, to produce peat fuel as a paying commercial undertaking. This, it is proposed, can be done by an invention using electricity for releasing the water from the peat.

The discovery of a substitute for coal in abundance cannot fail to have a widespread effect. Experts calculate that Irish bogs are capable of turning out 50,000,000 tons of fuel per year for a thousand years, and if this were sold at the moderate figure of five shillings per ton it would bring in £12,500,000 a year. When this sum is multiplied by a thousand it will be seen that Ireland is richer in undeveloped resources than is sometimes imagined. At present, Ireland pays to Great Britain something like £1,000,000 a year for coal, but with the utilization of the bogs it will be possible to keep this money at home, and, in addition, to add considerably to the national income.

Already, at Athy, a peat fuel-producing plant is being erected with which it is hoped that fuel as good as the best Welsh coal may be put on the market at a third the cost.

Quite a number of advantages are claimed for this

fuel. In the first place, it is practically smokeless, and its use should help to lessen the smoke nuisance which has now become so serious in many cities. The importance of a fuel in the navy which would take up less space than coal and produce no smoke cannot be overestimated. It makes no clinker or cinder, deteriorates but little by keeping, does not crumble by handling, and has a high calorific value. Another important consideration is the amount of space that will be required for the storing of this fuel in railway trucks, ships' holds, or bunkers. Ordinary coal takes, on an average, 40 cubic feet for a ton and weighs 55 pounds per cubic foot. The electro peat coal takes about 34 cubic feet to the ton and weighs 66 pounds per cubic foot.

The extent of the Irish bogs is almost as great as that of those in the German Empire; and the prospect of exhausting them seems very remote. Moreover, it is thought by a great authority that they will reproduce themselves in fifty to a hundred years. And, again, peat bogs do not yield fuel only.

The use of peat powder as a disinfectant is on the increase in Germany and other Continental countries. It is used for packing fruit, preserving ice, and it also makes a splendid covering for hot-water pipes. Peat molasses as a food for cattle is another industry which is coming to the front.

A DEFENSE OF "STANDARD OIL."

AMERICAN magazines are not devoting much space just now to the ethical justification of the oil monopoly. Much has been printed in recent issues concerning the personal character of Mr. Rockefeller, and a recent cartoon represents that gentleman as inquiring, wearily, of his newsdealer, "Is there anything on this stand that isn't about me?" The mass of these articles are frankly hostile, and it gives the magazine reader a new sensation to come upon a serious defense of "Standard" ethics in the current number of one of the most dignified and respected of our theological quarterlies,—the *Bibliotheca Sacra*.

The writer of the article in question, Prof. G. Frederick Wright, from his study of the means by which the oil business has been developed, arrives at the conclusion that, in the main, the methods employed "are the only ones possible in the service of the public good, and such as are fully justified by all the ethical principles upon which the system of competition is permitted to work out its beneficial results."

RAILROAD RATES AND REBATES.

Professor Wright sums up the transportation question under the following three heads:

1. An economical factor in the problem which is

little appreciated by the general public is found in the skillful selection of points most convenient for the col-



MR. ROCKEFELLER: "Is there any reading matter here that isn't about me?"—From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

lection of the crude oil and the distribution of the refined. With the means of communication available in the early days of the oil industry, Cleveland, Ohio, combined the greatest number of facilities for such collection and distribution. From this point competing railroads ran both east and west, while through the larger part of the year water communication was open both to New York and Chicago.

2. One of the leading advantages arising from the choice of such a center existed in the cheapness of transportation to distant points secured by competing railroads and waterways. If the railroads obtained any of the business of transporting oil between Cleveland and New York, they must do it at rates closely approaching those which were offered by the waterways. Not only was it perfectly fair that the Standard Oil Company at Cleveland should take advantage of these rates, but in the service of the public good they were bound to do it, while the railroads were justified in hauling the product as through freight at cheaper rates than they could make for shorter hauls of way freight. If they had put up their through freights to match their way freights, they would have lost the traffic, and deprived themselves of the relatively small profits derived therefrom, and to that extent burdened themselves with the duty of making their whole earnings from the way freight, which would add still more to the expenses of all the industries of the interior towns.

3. By furnishing a large amount of freight regularly, the actual cost of transportation was greatly reduced, and it was but fair that the organization which secured this should derive advantage from it.

The statement of Mr. Rockefeller that the discriminations which he has received from the transportation lines have been amply paid for, and that equal discriminations were open to anybody else who should select equally favorable points of distribution and carry on a business of the same magnitude, is declared to be fully justified by the evidence. The system of railroad rebates in vogue between 1872 and 1882 is explained as a system introduced by the railroads themselves, so that every shipper who did business with them had to make a special bargain. The Standard Oil Company, of course, had great advantages in driving a bargain of this kind.

One instance that seems on its face indefensible is the rebate of 22½ cents a barrel paid by the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1879 to the American Transfer Company (an adjunct of the Standard Oil Company) on oil shipped by other parties. This, however, is explained as being not a rebate, but a "sum paid, out of the total freight rate, to the Transfer Company, for the service of gathering the oil and bringing it to the Pennsylvania Railroad rather than to some other transporting line."

MONOPOLY VERSUS COMPETITION.

Professor Wright points out that the public has been greatly benefited by the success of the Standard Oil Company, both in improving the

quality of the marketable product and in bringing the price down to a very narrow margin of profit.

While it is true that the production of many of the main staples of commerce is monopolized by large combinations of capital so as to shut off individual competition, it is not true that the career of the individual is thereby greatly circumscribed, for the very success of these so-called monopolies in excluding competition by lowering the margin of profit and cheapening the product opens innumerable other channels of effort into which the individual may freely enter with hope of success. In the oil business, for example, the greatest evils existed in connection with the waste of that "cut-throat competition" which was practised in the first decade of its existence. When five competing pipe lines were built to Pit Hole City where only one was necessary, four-fifths of the capital was wasted, and became a dead loss, not only to the individuals expending it, but to the community, which was compelled in the long run to pay higher prices for oil on account of the great waste attending such unwise competition.

Those extreme fluctuations of prices inevitable in handling such a product by small capitalists were productive of the worst classes of evils connected with the gambling mania. The elimination of those evils by the growth of the Standard Oil Company is an incalculable service to the whole public, and especially to the great crowds of young men who are freed from the temptations incident to the former condition of things. The men engaged in those two hundred and forty oil refineries, more or less, which failed before the Standard Oil Company originated were free to go about safer and more profitable business to themselves, and to bless the world by activities less connected with hazards than those through which their original failure was brought about.

In Professor Wright's opinion, it is a mistake to assume that the Standard Oil Company is or can be beyond the reach of competition. In the first place, oil is not the only commodity which provides light and heat. It has to compete with wood, gas, coal, and the water power of Niagara, and of all the cataracts by which electricity is being generated and distributed to an increasing extent. It also has to compete with other large organizations which deal in petroleum. At the present time, the percentage of business controlled by the Standard Oil Company is considerably less than it was a few years ago. Its chief rival, the Pure Oil Company, has a capital of \$10,000,000 and an independent pipe-line to the Atlantic coast. In foreign trade, the Standard is in competition with the oil interests of Russia, which are greater than those of America, and are owned by the Rothschilds and the Nobel Brothers. Furthermore, one of the most powerful influences in reducing the selling price of oil to consumers is the latent competition of probable or possible competitors. It is profitable for the Standard to keep prices at so low a rate that capital will not be tempted to compete.

THE SUPERVISION OF LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

RECENT sensational disclosures in the business of life insurance have served to focus public attention on the methods of supervision employed by the insurance departments of our State governments. In this connection an article contributed to the *North American Review* for July by S. Herbert Wolfe, an actuary who has conducted examinations of insurance companies for various of these State departments, or bureaus, has a timely interest.

A great defect of the system of insurance supervision in this country is that in each State the supervising officer is part of the State's political machinery. In most cases, the office of insurance commissioner is handed out as a reward for political services. So it comes about that men with no technical equipment are placed in charge of investigations which demand special training and experience. They are then compelled to employ trained actuaries to do the real work of conducting examinations. Mr. Wolfe intimates that the insurance laws of most of the States, having been enacted when life insurance companies were practically in their infancy, are inadequate to meet the needs of present conditions. The chief points of regulation to be aimed at in insurance laws are: The establishment of a standard of solvency by which the financial condition of the organization may be tested; the designation of the investments in which a company may invest its funds; the prescription of adequate forms under which the companies shall render their annual accounts; and providing for the verification of these accounts and reports by a personal examination of the affairs of the company on the part of the supervisor.

THE QUESTION OF INVESTMENTS.

The second point mentioned by Mr. Wolfe,—the prescribing of investments,—must be recognized as one of the most important features of supervision. This has been clearly illustrated in the Equitable exposures. Mr. Wolfe's discussion of this point is worthy of the attention of all policy-holders:

The laws of nearly all the States permit companies to purchase sufficient real estate for the conduct of their own business. This has been, by practice, construed to permit a company to erect a large office building but a small part of which is occupied for its own operations. It goes without saying, of course, that companies are permitted to take title to such real estate as they are compelled to acquire under foreclosure, although the laws of many of the States require such property to be sold within a given time, usually five years, unless the necessary certificate is secured from some State officer setting forth that a forced sale would

result injuriously to the interests of the policy-holders. A large part of the funds of insurance companies is invested in bond and mortgage on real estate, and the laws usually prescribe that such real property shall be improved, unencumbered, and worth 50 per cent. more than the amount loaned thereon. The weak part of this requirement is that it makes no provision for ascertaining the actual worth of the property. The restriction is, therefore, valueless.

The next broad subdivision of investments is the bonds and stocks. The statutes of a State in which are located large insurance interests provide that, after making the deposit with the superintendent of insurance, the residue of the capital and the surplus money and funds "may be invested in, or loaned on the pledge of, any of the securities in which deposits are required to be invested, or in the public stocks and bonds of any one of the United States, or, except as herein provided, in the stocks, bonds, or other evidence of indebtedness of any solvent institution incorporated under the laws of the United States, or of any State thereof." Companies are not permitted to loan upon or own the stock of any other insurance corporation transacting the same kind of business.

It will be seen at once that the field of investment permitted under this act is so broad as to contain, practically, no restrictions. It is responsible for many of the evils which have crept into the business, and which must, in the very near future, be remedied, in order that the institution of life insurance shall occupy its legitimate field. It was never intended that the funds of any corporation of this kind should be used for the purpose of controlling subsidiary corporations, engaged in the transaction of other forms of commercial enterprises. The spectacle of insurance companies owning the controlling interest in the stock of banks, trust companies, trolley roads, and industrial corporations of various kinds is neither a pleasant nor a reassuring one. The evils to which such a condition of affairs can lead have been given great prominence in recent public prints.

If the supervision of insurance companies is to be worth anything, it must, in the very near future, devote its serious consideration to the establishment of more rigorous standards, preventing the use (or misuse) of the policy-holders' contributions for personal gain or aggrandizement. In addition to the foregoing, companies are permitted to loan to their policy-holders an amount not exceeding the reserve which is maintained on their policies. This constitutes one of the safest and most desirable investments which a company can make. It is hard to imagine a more thoroughly secured loan than one of this character. Should the policy-holder die, the loan, by its terms, immediately becomes due and payable and is deducted from any proceeds which are turned over to the beneficiary. It is dependent for its security upon the progress of no outside institution. It can never be repudiated, as have been the bonds of some municipalities. If the policy-holder permits his policy to lapse, the company is amply protected; for it has in its possession the man's reserve, which, it will be borne in mind, is the excess payments which he has made to provide for the maintenance of a level premium throughout his contract.

THE "SCHOOL CITY" IN PHILADELPHIA.

PUPIL self-government in the form known as the school city, as originated by Mr. Wilson L. Gill and described at length in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for December, 1899, has been introduced in the public schools of Philadelphia, and is meeting, apparently, with much success there. In the current number of *Social Service* (New York), Mr. Gill outlines the purposes of the movement and suggests some of its possibilities. In a brief statement which heads the article, President Roosevelt expresses his appreciation of Mr. Gill's work both in this country and in Cuba, where he inaugurated this form of instruction upon the invitation of General Wood.

Mr. Gill's contention is that our public schools, as commonly administered, teach by example, if not by precept, the principles of monarchical government rather than of republicanism.

In the olden time, the government of a school was a monarchy. But it did not make very much difference; it was only for a little while. If it were a bad tyranny, it simply made children hate it.

That same sort of government has been continued in the schools of the republic, and now we have the child being trained by the schools for monarchy. The only government that an educated American comes in contact with while his character is being established, while he is forming the habits of his life, is that of a monarchy. He is being made intelligent; perhaps he is being made to understand a good many questions in relation to government and citizenship, but while he is being made intelligent in regard to these things he is being compelled to form the habit of being a subject and of accepting a government in which he has no part whatever, except to obey.

PHILADELPHIA'S ILLS THE RESULT OF
MONARCHICAL TEACHINGS.

It is possible to find in Philadelphia as good an illustration of the bad results of this kind of instruction as any American municipality can furnish. Mr. Gill describes the situation in the following paragraphs:

In the city of Philadelphia, at the last two municipal elections, 45 per cent. of the people who were registered to vote did vote. Fifty-five per cent. of those who had the right did not vote. This 45 per cent. who did vote, and who go to the primaries, is made up largely of the men who work in factories and shops and on the streets, under the orders of foremen. Their whole business life is spent in taking orders and in carrying them into execution. They belong to political clubs, and there they are governed as in the shop. They are told what they shall do at the primary meetings, and they do it. They are told what they shall do at the polls, and they do that. They do not go to the primaries and to the polls as independent American citizens, but simply as parts of a machine, under the orders of the officers of the bosses.

When we see who those 55 per cent. are who do not vote in the primaries, and do not go to the polls, we find they are practically the entire body of those who have graduated from the colleges and universities; not absolutely, but practically the whole body of men who are at the heads of business, including professional men, and those who take the initiative in their daily business. All of these have been eliminated from municipal citizenship in the city of Philadelphia; so that the bosses are left to use the machine exactly as they see fit. Thus, we have in Philadelphia,—we do not call him King Durham, we call him "the easy boss,"—but he is a king, just as much as any man in any country in the world was ever king. That same condition exists, to a less extent, perhaps, in almost every city of the Union.

A WAY TO MAKE GOOD CITIZENS.

Mr. Gill declares that a method has been found which is actually making "citizens, instead of subjects," out of thousands and thousands of children in that same city of Philadelphia.

Every school that organizes the "School City" government receives a charter from the Board of Education, under which they form a complete municipal government, a room corresponding to a ward. A mayor, board of councilmen, judges, policemen, and other officials are chosen by a majority vote of the scholars for a term of ten weeks. The children are not playing city government. There is no make-belief. The laws, together with the trials, convictions, and punishments for their violation, are all real, and the result of this real experience is a real training in civic responsibility, and the development of the civic spirit.

The following are the laws of the School City:

CHAPTER I.—THE GENERAL CITY LAW.

Do to others as you would wish them to do to you. This is the natural law, without which no popular government can succeed, and it is the general law of this School City, to which all other laws and regulations must conform.

CHAPTER II.—THINGS PROHIBITED.

Article 1. Do not to others that which you would not wish them to do to you.

ORDER.

Art. 2. Anything which disturbs the order in halls, classrooms, or in any place within the jurisdiction of the School City is prohibited.

Art. 3. Anything which is profane, rude, intentionally unkind or impolite, is prohibited.

CLEANLINESS.

Art. 4. Anything which detracts from the neat and orderly appearance of our School City is prohibited.

HEALTH.

Art. 5. Anything which detracts from the healthful conditions of our School City is prohibited.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Art. 6. Anything which mars or destroys property in our School City is prohibited.

CHAPTER III.—DUTIES.

Article 1. Every citizen is in duty bound to call the attention of the authorities to any violation of the laws of this School City.

CHAPTER IV.—PUNISHMENTS.

Article 1. Any citizen violating any law of this School City shall be subject to punishment not less

than a reprimand, and not greater than a withdrawal of the rights of citizenship.

Art. 2. No punishment shall be carried into execution before it has been approved by the principal of the school, and then it must be put promptly into effect.

NOTE.—The children are free to accept, change, or reject these laws, and to make additional laws as circumstances require. They invariably accept them without change, and generally with much enthusiasm.

AN ITALIAN PRINCE'S OPINION OF NEW YORK.

IMPRESSIONS of New York by Prince Baldassare Odescalchi, an Italian Senator, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), have the never-failing interest of seeing ourselves as others see us. The article, which is very elaborate, opens thus :

New York is an immense hive where swarms an infinity of people ; there is concentrated an extraordinary and gigantic agglomeration of work. New York is a monstrous factory, an inferno,—anything that you will save an æsthetic and refined city. Neither the ancient Greeks nor the Italians of the Renaissance would have been able to conceive of it. The ancient Romans, with all their power, would not have been capable of building it. The feverish activity of our times and the discoveries of modern science were needed to bring it forth. New York is essentially a modern monster.

The prince's first shock was the inability to find a guide to show him about town, as in European cities. Being directed to the tourist automobiles, he discovered why out-of-date methods of touring no longer obtained. Only a modern invention could cope with the task of "doing" New York. The Broadway buildings he found of "ugly architecture, with a few rare ones in good style," but the churches "generally in good taste, the Gothic style predominating," though they "appeared like Nuremberg toys, placed against many-storied buildings overtopping their towers." One skyscraper with a Greek temple below and fifteen or twenty stories above he regarded as a symbol of the miracle of modern statics crushing the simplicity and the purity of classic antiquity. The jokes of the megaphone man at the expense of the Liberty statue did not impress him, and he remarks :

And here it is to be noted that the Americans are great lovers of jokes, and are not very exigent as to their being refined. To explain such an infantile taste, they say that, being a laborious people, with minds always active and on business tension, they consider jokes as useful and hygienic refreshment, and are not too critical of their quality.

The Italian quarter made him think he was in Naples, but though it seemed miserable in comparison with other quarters of New York, he

thought it cleaner, and the people politer than in Naples, and the absence of beggars indicated that the emigrants had bettered themselves. After commenting on the hotel arrangements, and the many conveniences, he continues :

However, all human service is lacking. In the morning, you have to fill your own bath-tub, and, having taken the bath, you must empty it. To dry yourself, you must use the little towels of the washstand ; you must clean your own clothes, and to get your boots cleaned you must descend to the street and go in search of a bootblack if you do not find one on the lower floor of your hotel. If you ring the bell, usually no one comes, or some one presents himself with a pitcher of ice-water, the only service they imagine you should require. All other service is reduced to that of a maid who every morning remakes the bed and cleans superficially.

Speaking of amusements, the writer says :

As for American dramatic literature, it seems to me of infantile simplicity ; but with all that, the public gives it warm welcome, and I myself have heard them laugh boisterously over the most common jokes.

Of the people in the streets, he says :

No one goes on the street for pleasure, as too often happens in our cities. It is a busy people, proceeding rapidly to expedite their own affairs. The gait of both women and men is remarkable for firmness. I think that comes from American education, which accustoms them from childhood not to have recourse to outside aid, but to do everything for themselves. Besides that, they go alone from their earliest years, whence comes that frankness and ease with which they walk. In spite of the enormous immigration, they all have an Anglo-Saxon type, if not from their origin, at least from acquired habit and mode of clothing. Their aspect is robust and healthy, both men and women. The latter have fine proportions and fresh complexions, and are of calm demeanor ; but they all resemble one another, both in form and in a certain uniformity of costume.

He remarks, however, a certain carelessness that distinguishes the American from the Briton. The habit of not carrying sticks he thinks is to enable the men to catch moving cars and get into them quickly. Remarking on the freedom of women and the respect for them that makes it possible for them to go alone, day or evening,

through the streets, even hatless in hot weather, or when driving or riding, he says :

All this indicates a certain rudeness in manners that reveals itself in many ways. For example, people are seen going hastily and bumping into one another, without, however, stopping to beg pardon. However, you would err greatly if you attributed this rudeness to ill-will, for the American is by nature good-natured, *bonaccione*, as is vulgarly said in Italy. Such rudeness of manner comes, it seems to me, from the Americans not having time to lose, because overloaded with business. For example, if you go up to any one in the street to ask information, the American will stop politely, and, if your request be precise and clear, will answer you with courtesy, but in few words. If, however, you try to continue to talk, he will forsake you and take up his way without even greeting you.

Seeking to express the typical American spirit, the prince says :

First of all, I recall the characteristic notes of the American spirit as audacity, energy, activity, intensity of work, and a natural tendency for business. But it appears to me that they attend to affairs, day and night, from puberty to death, not so much from cupidity to accumulate money as from the passion that comes from that same activity and from the attraction of extending old enterprises and starting new ones. Even the millionaires never cease working or stop to enjoy an idle life and taste the pleasures that could be enjoyed with the accumulated riches, because enamored of the work that awaits them, and pushed by the desire

to make it ever more gigantic. Contrary to that which too often exists with us, their work is esteemed and always prized, and does not exclude one from the highest society. For example, there are poor young students who to procure the means of pursuing courses in the universities in the winter take places as waiters in the restaurants and cafés of the principal watering-places. That does not keep them from attending, in the evening, the most elegant social gatherings and dancing with the most noted young ladies. In æsthetics, American fancy causes them to admire above all the grandiose, the enormous, the gigantic. Hence the phrase "the highest in the world" that they apply to everything in their country. In America they are at the beginning of the work. They are blocking out the statue, but before long they will certainly begin to refine it. Their tendency to instruction, the works of their architects, painters, and sculptors, as well as the foundation of museums, are certain signs that demonstrate how much the American taste is being raised and tends to become refined. The writer finds American patriotism a very special brand which mostly ignores Europe, past and present, completely. He recounts the boasting of history, products, and future addressed to the delegates of all European parliaments. He tells especially of the mayor of Philadelphia, who ingenuously offered to welcome any of the European guests at a banquet as citizens of his great and beautiful city—and the writer was *civis romanus* and proud of it! "But the times have changed," he sighs, "and the epoch when to be a Roman citizen was an honor envied by the people of all the world is past by many centuries."

CONEY ISLAND, THE WORLD'S GREATEST PLAYGROUND.

IT may well be doubted whether most New Yorkers themselves have come to a realization of the importance which travelers attach to their great summer beach resort, Coney Island. Outside of New York, the transformation which the island has undergone during the past three years is only partially comprehended. The illustrated description of the great play city, by Lindsay Denison, in the August number of *Munsey's*, may be read with profit by all summer visitors to the metropolis.

Mr. Denison tells how the resort sprang into existence a generation ago and from a haphazard assemblage of bath-houses, carousels, cheap eating-places, shooting galleries, music halls, dancing pavilions, "freak" shows, and various catchpenny devices gradually developed into a populous summer settlement where vice was rampant and honor at a discount. Finally, after the place had grown to be so "tough" that thousands shunned it after a single visit, it was found that respectable fun-seekers demanded and would support a decently conducted resort on the island. In course of time it was

duly impressed on certain capitalists that decency could be made to pay dividends, and so there came about a revolution in the character of the Coney Island amusement places. Soon the character of the crowds that went to the island showed a marked change. There was far less rowdiness than formerly. Men brought their families with them and behaved themselves. Mr. Denison notes some of the present characteristics of the resort in the following paragraphs.

THE FUN-SEEKER'S PARADISE.

It is essentially a place of merriment. There is no reason for going to Coney Island except to have fun. Over its railway termini might well be written, "Leave care behind all ye who enter here." Down from the big city—which, thanks to the hurry of the railroads to carry as many passengers as possible, is but little more than half an hour's journey away,—the tens of thousands come down hungry for laughter every afternoon and night in the week. On Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays the crowds increase to a hundred, two hundred, three hundred, thousand. The fun-loving spirit cannot but get into the very atmosphere. There are hundreds who come with only their return car fare in

their pockets, merely for the joy of mixing with the crowds on the public streets and catching the live sense of humanity and of good-humor that is everywhere.

THE ISLAND'S SIGHTS AND SOUNDS.

There is a constant braying of bands on the main thoroughfare and its branches. The frankfurter kitchen, the miniature barbecue for the manufacture of beef sandwiches, the mechanical taffy-pullers, the swishing pop-corn roasters, countless exhibitions of marksmanship with rifle and hand-thrown ball at a hundred booths,—these entertainments and countless others are free

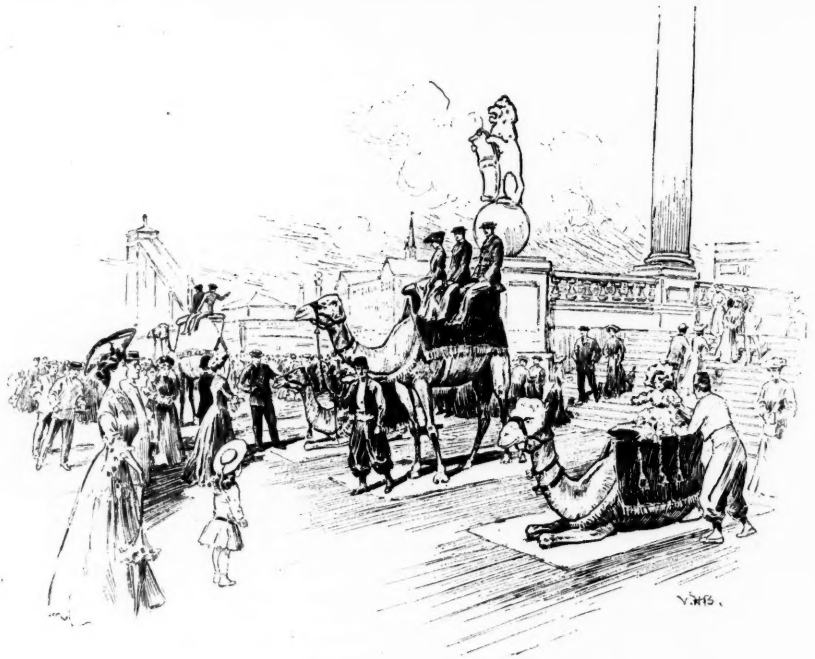
as air for those who want them. For him who has ten cents of good and lawful money and a willingness to spend it, the inclosures are open with further opportunities to laugh. Here one may watch those who ride on camels or miniature trains, who "shoot the chutes" or "slide the slides,"—exploits that sometimes prove more amusing to the spectator than to the performer.

As for the shows one can see if he begins a round of the inside entertainments,—who shall number or describe them? The appetite of the American people for rapid motion has produced innumerable gravity railways and chutes and whirling airship swings. There is every variation,—a trip through the Swiss Alps, a whirl through scenes from heaven and hell as pictured by artists of somewhat crude but always highly colored imagination, a tour of Europe, a visit to a coal mine, to the North Pole, and to every other place on or over or under the earth to which the paraphernalia of the gravity railway can be adapted.

All the inclosures, too, have dancing pavilions, where public dancing is free. The most notable of these is built on the Dreamland pier,—a marvelously beautiful room of simply designed decorations, all in white, which sparkles with electric lights, at night, like a gem-set casket.

THE BIG SPECTACULAR SHOWS.

Then there are firemen's exhibitions, in which trained fire-fighters attack sham conflagrations in a city block made of iron scenery, after a rather elaborate acting out, by a crowd of two or three hundred people, of the life in a city street, just to make the display more realistic. The fire-engines are real, the horses are real, the



SCENE IN ONE OF THE GREAT CONEY ISLAND INCLOSURES.

water is real, and the leaps of men and women from the roofs of the buildings into the life-nets are real. There are spectacles like "Creation," in which a panorama of the beginning of the world is presented. In the new Brighton Beach Park, which is well over toward the aristocratic Manhattan Beach, is the "Boer War," where actual participants in the South African struggle fight their battles over again twice a day. The battlefield covers thirteen acres, and the musketry and cannonading are heard miles up and down the coast. Most pretentious of all this year's spectacles is the "Fall of Port Arthur," at Luna Park, where Russian and Japanese armies bombard each other over the crests of tin hills, and forty miniature warships, under their own power, circle in a harbor of real water, flying the flags of the Czar and of the Mikado, and blaze away at one another and the fortifications.

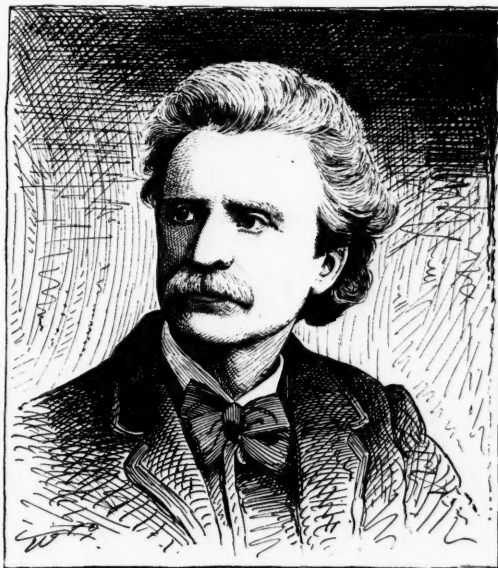
The Brighton Beach Park, when finished, will be as large as was the whole Midway at Buffalo. The shows already on Coney Island are greater than was the Pike at St. Louis. It is a city that will not fade away or tumble in on itself at the end of an exposition season. It has become a permanent institution, with a fixed population of its own.

Similar amusement cities are being built to supply the demands of Chicago and other centers of population, since the new Coney Island has established as a fact and as a safe basis for investment that "the American people will pay freely and eagerly for fun that is clean and honest."

EDVARD GRIEG'S FIRST SUCCESS.

A CHATTY, personal account of Grieg's early boyhood is contributed to the *Contemporary Review* by the Scandinavian composer himself. In his boyhood he suffered many trials, and scored several successes of which he is very proud. He tells with especial glee of his meeting with Ole Bull, and how he (Grieg) succeeded in getting a musical training at Leipsic. He says:

It befell that one summer's day a rider at full gallop dashed up from the road to Landas. He drew up, reined in his fiery Arab, and leaped off. It was he,—the fairy god whom I had dreamed of but never seen; it was Ole Bull. It did not quite please me that this god simply got off and behaved like a man, came into the room and smilingly greeted us all. I remember well that I felt something like an electric current pass through me when his hand touched mine. But when this divine being let himself go so far as to make jokes, it was clear to me, to my silent sorrow, that he was only a man after all. Unfortunately, he had not his violin with him, but talk he could, and talk he diligently did. We all listened speechless to his astounding stories of his journeys in America. That was indeed something for my childish imagination. But when he heard I had composed music, I had to go to the piano; all my entreaties were in vain. I cannot now understand what Ole Bull could find at that time in my juvenile pieces. But he was quite serious, and talked quietly to my parents. The matter of their discussion was by no means disagreeable to me. For suddenly Ole Bull came to me, shook me in his own way, and said, "You are to go to Leipsic and become a musician." Everybody



EDVARD GRIEG.

looked at me affectionately, and I understood just one thing, that a good fairy was stroking my cheek and and that I was happy. And my good parents! Not one moment's opposition or hesitation; everything was arranged, and it seemed to me the most natural thing in the world. What thanks I owed to them—plus Ole Bull—I only saw clearly at a later time.

EXPERIMENTAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE THEORY OF DESCENT.

THE profusion of surprising and significant results which the science of immunity, in spite of its youth, has brought to light serves to greatly increase the interest of medicine as a biological science. The theory of the "anti-bodies," as stated for bacteriology, seems to serve, not only as the focal point of interest for medical investigation, but it has also brought out facts that bear upon fundamental questions of biological significance.

The problem of the origin of the human race, the question of all questions for mankind, has so far found its answer only in the fossil records of the rocks, in the summing up of the evolution of the race which the study of embryology shows to occur during the development of each individual, and in the structural relations which the anatomists have found to exist between different animals.

The possibility of confirming the relationships believed to exist between the different orders of animals by chemical means, as presented by Dr. Robert Rössle in the last two numbers of the *Biologisches Centralblatt* (Leipsic), is most welcome, considering the meager facts, and the links lost from the chain of evidence as we have found it up to the present time.

Bacteriology has shown that certain substances called "anti-bodies," in solution in the blood, resist the action of poisons thrown out by disease germs or other foreign matters, and these resistant principles are produced in greater quantities in proportion to the amount and kind of foreign matter to be resisted.

The three groups of anti-bodies, lysins, agglutins, and precipitins, have, as a common characteristic, a high but not absolute degree of specificity.

The intraperitoneal, nitrovenous, or subcutaneous injection of an animal with cellular material causes the blood to react and produce, in resistance against the foreign bodies, *lysins*, which have the power of dissolving material, such as blood corpuscles, having the same origin as the substance injected, and it will also dissolve cells, as blood corpuscles, etc., of closely related species of animals.

In the same way, agglutins, produced in resistance to cells injected from any animal, will cause the blood corpuscles of that animal or of closely related stock to adhere in small groups, in the familiar reaction of agglutination.

Precipitins, resulting from the introduction of foreign albuminous fluids into the blood, produce a precipitate in these same solutions, or in solutions that are very closely related biochemically.

The significance of the imperfect specificity of these resistant principles lies in the fact that by their use it is possible to determine the systematic relationships of animals.

For example, the more marked the reaction of a serum upon the blood corpuscles of an animal is, the nearer that animal must be related to the animal that the serum was originally prepared to act upon. A serum prepared to act on animal *A* produces a stronger reaction on animal *B* in proportion to the closeness of the systematic relationship of the two animals. And in addition to this evidence of relationship, cells from either animal will produce no resist-

ant serum when injected into the blood of the other. The anthropoid apes produce no antibodies in response to the action of human serum or human blood corpuscles.

Different kinds of milk,—for example, human milk and cow's milk,—may be distinguished by means of this biochemical relation, for when the fluid used for making an animal immune to any injurious principle is mixed with the serum of the immunized animal a precipitate will be formed.

By the same process, the close relationship of the chick and the dove, the horse and the donkey, the fox and the dog, the goat and the sheep, has been shown.

The power of reaction of warm-blooded animals against foreign albuminous substances is so delicate that .02 gram injected during the course of a month will cause the formation of a specific precipitin.

Although these reactions serve as experimental proof of the theory of descent, they cannot be taken to distinguish species and varieties, for nature does not make sharp distinctions between different classes of animals, but gives transitional forms.

On the whole, Darwin's theory receives a brilliant support in these biochemical reactions. On the other hand, it is also apparent that animals have the general power of resisting foreign albuminous substances, and it would be an interesting problem to trace the origin of this back through the animal kingdom.

THE REACTION OF THE RUSSIAN DEFEAT UPON THE MOSLEM WORLD IN ASIA.

THE famous Hungarian traveler, Arminius Vámbéry, contributes a timely and spirited article to the *Deutsche Revue*. He speaks of the effect which, after only about a year, the amazing victories of the Japanese have produced upon the Asiatic nations far removed from the scene of action, those under the Russian scepter, and others still politically independent,—the Turks, Persians, Afghans, Khirgiz, and Mongols. He predicts further most momentous changes as a result of Russia's crushing reverses.

In order to appreciate the significance of the Mussulmans' present view of Russia we must bear in mind the awe and fear with which they have regarded her ever since Ivan the Terrible conquered the Asiatic hordes, in the sixteenth century. Since then she has been their arch-enemy, the victorious antagonist who has driven

them ever farther back. That Russia was but an advance guard of Western civilization could not easily become evident to the good but somnolent nations of the Orient; to them, Russia appeared as Allah's scourge, whom it was vain to resist. On the Bosphorus, before the introduction of regular armies, the most insulting and injurious demands of the Russian court were acceded to, in order to avoid war, since it was felt that any conflict would only lead to loss of territory and of prestige. Aided and encouraged by the Western nations, the sinking spirits of the Mohammedans were raised for a while in the Crimean War, but in the end this conflict brought them more loss than gain. In Persia, conditions were no better. Russia's grip upon Persia is even stronger than upon Turkey. Not only is the northern edge of that country radi-

cally undermined, but Russia's influence extends far beyond its center; and were it not that England bars the way, the whole country would easily fall under the Muscovite sway. Russia's conquest of the Turcomans, the robber barons who had deemed themselves invincible, was the most potent factor in the fear with which the Persians regarded Russia. After the power of those dreaded nomads was broken, the successful campaign against the Afghans, near the Punjab, in 1885, strengthened Russia's influence in the country bordering on India also, and the Afghan nation, which boasted of its heroic resistance to the English, had to recognize a dangerous and invincible foe in the White Czar. This was the condition of things until the recent occurrences in the far East—until news came of the victories of the Japanese by sea and land.

These reports were as startling as thunder in a clear sky to the Moslem nations of Asia, and it may be imagined what profound impression they created, what astonishment they aroused. . . . As a matter of course, as the Japanese are being glorified, so, in corresponding measure, are the Russians contemptuously spoken of, and their government described as criminal and incompetent,—nay, the very shortcomings and weaknesses of which Mohammedan countries have been accused are now charged against the Russians. Along with these manifestations we have, naturally, a harsh criticism of the conception hitherto prevailing in Moslem lands regarding the power and greatness of the northern Colossus. Shame is felt at the fear inspired by a country which has proved to be hollow and impotent, but still more at the defeats which the Moslem nations have sustained at the hands of the so greatly overrated giant, and different writers have come to the conclusion that, owing to the experiences in Manchuria the Moslems may look forward to a more hopeful future. . . . The Mohammedans of India are no less rejoiced at the disasters which have befallen the Russian arms, although the animating principle here is not so much a feeling of revenge against the arch-foe of Islam as the fact that an Asiatic nation has triumphed over a Christian one.

On the whole, the reaction of the Russian reverses in Manchuria upon the relations of Russia to the Mohammedans of Asia will entail serious consequences. The change regards not so much the present as the course of events in the future, for at present the pressure of Russia's hand upon the Mohammedan subjects of the Czar is still sufficiently strong to preclude violent revolts or a sudden shaking off of the yoke. The writer holds that in Turkey Russia's power is too great to justify any fears at this time. The Sultan is almost a vassal of the Czar. Were it not for the unfortunate policy of fear and suspicion which has been followed by the former, the confusion reigning within and without his dominions, now would be the time to take advantage of his arch-

enemy's plight. For the present, Turkey can reap no profit from the events in the far East. Still less can Persia do so, as she is yet more firmly in the clutches of the Czar. Irresolution, false conception of the real state of things, arbitrary tyranny, lawlessness, and the other shortcomings of Turkey beset Persia also.

Far more disastrous for Russia may the reaction caused by her reverses prove in sections where the court of St. Petersburg has only laid its plans, the success of which still rests with the future. In this connection Afghanistan is of prime importance. The present Emir assumed, in contradistinction to his father's policy, an unfriendly attitude toward England, and, on the other hand, gave abundant evidence of friendliness to Russia, which was, of course, reciprocated by that country. Among other things, he constantly sought to fan the fire of revolt among the unruly tribes of northwestern India. After the news of Russia's disasters by sea and land, a sudden change of scene took place at Kabul. The Emir seemed to drop his plans for inciting the border tribes. Khas Khan, the instigator of the anti-English policy, lost his influence at court, and other evidences of friendliness to England were exhibited.

In the eyes of the liberal-minded Asiatics, the Japanese have been chosen by Providence to be the avengers of their brethren, hitherto held in subjection by Russia; they have broken the spell of Russian invincibility, and it is easily comprehensible that the Oriental should recognize in the Japanese nation his savior, regard it with pride, and wish to take the achievements of Japanese culture for models.

New thoughts and ideas do not, indeed, readily make their way in Islam, but when events are freighted with a hope for betterment, and the people recognize the opportunity of obtaining revenge for the ignominy and degradation which they have suffered, then the chains that bind even the most inveterate conservatism soon burst asunder, humanity steps into its rights, and even the dreamy Oriental girds himself for unexpected effort.

From this point of view, there is no doubt that Russia has, by her reverses in the far East, lost her nimbus of power and greatness, and has fallen greatly in the estimation of the Mohammedans of Asia.

This has reference, not alone to her military prowess, but even far more to the witchcraft and skill with which the simple inhabitants of the northern half of Asia invested her. The Russian propaganda, namely, has always known how to make it appear that all the scientific discoveries of the West, all the appliances of modern technology,—nay, all the achievements of the European intellect,—were pure Russian products; it has emblazoned the Russian flag with all the achievements of the

Western world. So that in these respects, too, a change will be wrought in the conceptions of the Orientals, and in her struggle with Japan Russia may not only forfeit her present standing in the far East, but the prestige she has hitherto enjoyed throughout all Asia.

Arabia and Home Rule.

A former French consul, writing in *La Revue*, has a note on the national movement in Arabia and the decline of French influence in Asia Minor.

For some time the attention of the world has been attracted to a national Arab movement in Asia Minor, and a short time ago the Supreme Committee of the National Arab Party addressed a manifesto to the Arabs and the foreign powers declaring that it is now desirable for the Arabs to shake off the Turkish yoke and found an independent Arab empire which should include all the Arab countries of Asia, extending from the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates to the Isthmus of Suez, and from the Mediterranean to the Gulf of Oman. The writer thinks this the psychological moment for the French to turn their thoughts to Arabia instead of choosing this very time to abandon almost entirely their religious protectorate in Asia Minor, thus leaving the field free to all other nations. France ought at once to endeavor to regain her influence in this part of the Mediterranean, where, he asserts, she has many friends and warm partisans, and a name universally respected. It is not a question of war or armed conquest, but simple pacific penetration. Syria and Mesopotamia, he con-

tinues, are on the second route to India, and a few great canals in connection with the railways would make these countries remarkably prosperous. He feels certain that for years the English have been intriguing in the Persian Gulf and in Arabia, but the policy of Lord Curzon does not seem to have met with favorable results. In the extreme hinterland of Aden, the people, he is sure, would never accept British rule.

The principal organizers of the Arab Patriotic League are supposed to be in Europe, but it may safely be affirmed that the Arab National Party is in close relations with the Arabs of Asia Minor, and a happy moment has been chosen for issuing the manifesto. Now is the time for France to act in Asia Minor and in Arabia. Tomorrow it will be too late, and what happened in Egypt will be repeated in Asia. It is all very well to cry out against England's action in Egypt,—it was the abstention of France which forced England to act and reap the advantages of her action. France ought not to let Morocco hypnotize her. The monopolies and the markets in Arabia are reserved for the European states which will come to the aid of the Arab nation. England, no doubt, hopes to be remembered, but France has claims quite as good. Meanwhile, the French Catholic protectorate may pass into other hands, and the awakening of the Arab nation may bring disastrous consequences to France if she does not recognize the situation and endeavor to profit by it.

SOME PECULIARITIES OF CHINESE JOURNALISM.

A REMARKABLE awakening is evident in the Chinese press. The publications of China have not developed sufficiently to show the colorlessness and banality of the European and American press. Chinese editors call a spade a spade, and when anybody steals he is known as a thief. One of the most interesting sections of the Chinese newspaper is the section in which are published the imperial decrees. These show the great authority and power of the central government on the one hand and the corruption of the administration employees on the other. A Polish writer, Gustav Olechowski, who has been for some years a student of Chinese affairs, recently published a series of articles on the Chinese press in the *Tygodnik Ilustrowany*, of Warsaw. Mr. Olechowski quotes verbatim some of the more characteristic imperial decrees. Here is one:

The twenty-third day of the second moon [March 8 of our calendar]. Chao-Eng-Chen, governor of Hunan, has asked us to recompense and to punish some of his subalterns. So we thank Ngai-Chow-Ki, the prefect of Chao-Che-Fu; Lien-Chai-Chen, the prefect of Chao-Chen; Tan-Pan-In, the prefect of In-Chu Fu. All these officials deserve our highest praise. In the meantime, we punish Ngai-Lie-Iuen, the prefect of In-Jen-Fu, who permits his subordinates to extort money from the people; Inon-In-Chao, the sub-prefect of In-Ming-Len, because of his lack of energy toward his subalterns and of his bad reputation; Ten-Ai-Chao, because of his selection of unworthy assistants; Chen-Kin-Chao, Lin-Ioen-Tuan, and Ten-Ki-Fang, assistant sub-prefects, who are frivolous and detested by the people. We punish all these officials by degrading them in rank. As to the directors Li-Chen-In, U-San-See, and U-Ze, they are too old and too weak to perform their duties. We order these mandarins to leave their offices at once and return for good to their families and homes. We leave all the other matters presented to us by the governor to his own decision, with this one con-

dition—that he let us know what measures he has taken. Universal respect for this order is commanded.

The Emperor of China, it seems, is not always polite toward his subjects. Here is another decree :

Li-Chien-Soan, viceroy of Fokien and Chekiang, has prayed us to punish the following officials : Sin-Youen-Che, sub-prefect at In-Pin-Chien, because of his bad reputation and frequent visits to disreputable houses ; Lu-Te-Kong, sub-prefect at Chan-Taj-Lien, because of his general incapacity ; In-Ju-Kiang, because the merchants of his district feel bad toward him ; Lai-Ouang-Iong, colonel at Fu-Fu-Men, because of his bad habits and lack of tact ; Pej-Ju-Tag, lieutenant, because he knows nothing ; Laj-Uen-Uao, commander, because he only thinks how to make money and behaves worse than the worst kind of a robber ; Uang-Ko-Fou, commander, because he is so old and lacks vitality. So we degrade all these officials and functionaries. Universal respect for this decree is commanded.

Another characteristic imperial decree is the following, dated "the 25th day of the second moon" :

The president of the department of justice has communicated to the viceroy of both Koangs and to the governor of Kong Tong that the mandarin, Sin-Chen-Nun, while superintending the state examinations last year, committed some serious offenses against the law, and that, later on, he himself asked the court to fix his punishment. He must be punished, according to the law, by suspension from office for nine months ; but as he himself has confessed his culpability and asked for punishment, it is permitted to ask the Emperor to pardon him. With regard to his assistant mandarins, they must be degraded to a lower rank. They will be permitted, however, to buy back their positions. A general respect for this decree is commanded.

SOME CHINESE "WANT ADS."

So much for the official portion of the Chinese journals. As to the non-official section, it is generally poor enough. But in the advertising columns we find some marvelously humorous productions. There are, for example, some matrimonial advertisements. In the *Kuo-Min-Dji-Dji* (National Gazette) for September 17, 1904,

there were two noteworthy announcements. One was signed by a young Chinaman.

WIFE WANTED.—A young man wants to marry a handsome young woman. Following are the virtues which my future wife is certainly expected to possess : (1) Chinese and European education ; (2) perfect health ; (3) excellent knowledge of cookery ; (4) mastery of the art of needlework ; (5) normal, unpinched feet ; (6) character enough to bear poverty if she has to. The candidates for my hand are expected to send application and photograph to the newspaper office.

In a subsequent issue of the same journal appears an advertisement from a Chinese girl who has evidently had experience in practical life, who knows Chinese young men well, and who has, moreover, read the advertisement already quoted. She asks that her "ad" be inserted in the form of a letter to the editor. It follows :

In your issue of September 17, 1904, appeared an advertisement for a wife. Let me begin by saying that I regret having reasons to believe that this particular young man is not gifted with such qualities as I would expect in my future husband. I am twenty years of age, and have waited until now in vain for any one to deliver me from my maiden's prison. Having heard that it is usual in some countries of the world to advertise about such things, I have prepared ten paragraphs embodying the conditions expected of my future husband. I should be glad to have them published in your paper. (1) My husband must have both Chinese and European education ; (2) we must please each other in age and appearance ; (3) my husband will be permitted to have no other wife, nor will he be permitted to have any relations whatsoever with ladies outside of his own home ; (4) he will not be permitted to frequent cafés or gambling-houses, or to drink with actresses ; (5) he must not smoke opium ; (6) he must have no dark spots on his record ; (7) my husband must shave off his mustache and whiskers until he is forty years old ; (8) he must permit his wife full liberty to go out of and come into the house in as free a manner as though she were a man ; (9) my husband must allow me general liberty of movement, like other free people ; (10) my husband must place at my disposal one hundred dollars a month, and deposit with a bank, as a guarantee, this payment for three years in advance. I will thank you very much, Mr. Editor, if you will receive for me replies from the candidates who may respond.

THE PROGRESS OF GERMAN CHINA.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL JANSON discusses, in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, the progress which has recently been made in the German protectorate of Kiao-Chau. He had written, in the same journal, of the conditions there about a year before,—February, 1904. He then observed that the systematic methods of the government, as well as of the missions and financial concerns, gave assurance of a rapid development in every field. His present infor-

mation is based upon the comprehensive report of the imperial navy department, carried up to October, 1904. One of the most essential features of the advance accomplished is the moral victory which has been achieved, the Germans having succeeded in gaining the confidence of the Chinese and of their government. Since last June, Tsi-nan-fu, the capital of Shangtung, and Tsing-tau are connected by rail, and a Chinese hospital has been opened in the former

town under the management of a naval oculist. In a little over half a year, thirty-five hundred Chinese have received treatment there. In the town of Kiao-Chau, in the neutral zone, a polyclinic, established in a temple, was also largely frequented, treatment and medicines being given gratis. Within the protectorate, too, care for the Chinese has been displayed by building a new polyclinic at Li-tsun, and in Tai-tung-tschen the inhabitants themselves built a hospital. Other sanitary undertakings are in progress. The Europeans, too, profit by such measures, for the origin of epidemics is thereby more readily discovered, and steps can be taken in time to fight them. General Janson proceeds:

In consequence of all these sanitary measures, the number of alarming diseases in the protectorate has become very small, and the once notorious "Tsing tau itself may be considered perfectly salubrious." Perhaps the best evidence of this is its having developed into a seaside resort. In the year covered by the report it had five hundred visitors, among them two hundred English. Of still greater importance for the colony is the completion of the convalescent home "Mecklenburg-haus," in a highland region of Lau-schau, amid wildly romantic, magnificent scenery. As regards intellectual development, special attention has been paid to the needs of the Chinese. The Chinese schools of the different missions are making constant progress. The interest in the German language already extends beyond the limits of Shangtung.

Another field in which there is an increasingly successful coöperation with the natives is agriculture and forestry.

I have spoken of how the interest of the Chinese was aroused in the improvement of fruit trees. I also mentioned how slight their knowledge had up to that time been of the economic significance of forests, and of their rôle as regulators of atmospheric precipitation. In refreshing contrast to this is the vividly aroused interest of the Chinese Government in afforestation. Governor Chou-fou has commissioned some officials to visit the plantation near Tsing-tau, and has expressed a desire to have the range of hills surrounding his capital planted with trees according to the German model, and thereby inaugurate a rational control of the streams.

Trade is evidently in an increasingly flourishing condition. There was a notable increase in imports, exports, and revenue. General Janson believes that German occupation of Kiao-Chau cannot fail to benefit both Germans and Chinese.

All the presumptions, then, of a healthy growth have been verified, and the results thus far justify a full confidence in the ultimate development of Kiao-Chau into a really productive colony, whose significance for us must be compared, not with the worthless Wei-hai-Wei of the English, but with Hongkong, naturally in proportion to the smaller extent of our trade in the East as compared with that of the English. For that very reason, I would here repeat, the strengthening of Tsing-tau's means of defense is a matter of urgent necessity. Since we pursue an honest policy of the open door in our protectorate, and base our relations to China solely upon the promotion of mutual welfare, there is indeed no foundation for the assumption, sometimes expressed, that the issue of the Russo-Japanese war, as yet undetermined, may work some change in our position. Considerations based upon the shifting of relations of the powers in East Asia must not, therefore, lessen our solicitude for Kiao-Chau.

DANE VERSUS GERMAN IN SCHLESWIG.

WHILE some attention has been given to the position of the Poles in the German Empire and the struggle in which they are engaged for the maintenance of their language, national institutions, and even hereditary land, the position of the Danes in Schleswig, also smarting under the policy of Prussification, has not received as much consideration as it deserves. Ever since the Danish-Prussian war of 1864, Germany has been attempting to denationalize the Danes of Schleswig. Attempts to Germanize the land and stamp out the Danish language, however, have not been generally successful. Charges of great injustice have been made. Many Danes born and reared in the province have been disfranchised simply for voting in opposition to the repressive policy of the Prussian Government. The Danish language is forbidden in schools and churches (with the exception of a sermon in Danish once in a while),

numerous fines are imposed for the most trifling offenses, and "life is made intolerable in order that the people might be compelled to become German." A Danish-American reader of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* points out that, according to Clause V. of the peace treaty between Denmark and Prussia, the Danes who wished and voted so were to be accorded the privilege of remaining united with Denmark. Bismarck, however, failed to keep the solemn word of the Prussian Government, and as a result the Schleswig-Holstein question is added to the problems which are pressing for solution before the German Empire of to-day. In a ringing article in the *Contemporary Review*, on what he calls the "struggle for the soil," Mr. Erik Givskov recounts the struggles of Danes and Poles against "Prussification" during the past quarter of a century. Notwithstanding the great intellectual and economic achievements of German culture

during the past fifty years, he says, it cannot be denied that it is on the battlefield that Germany has won her most splendid victories. For that very reason, the victories are incomplete.

For while you can conquer sword in hand, you cannot assimilate an alien race by the sword; but the Germans have been drilled into such excellent soldiers that they have become saturated by the military instinct and fail to see this simple truth. The subjugated races being unwilling to discard their mother tongue and national culture in order to become Germans, only one means presents itself to the militaristic and militant German mind for achieving this matter-of-course purpose,—coercion and force.

Mr. Givskov marvels that it seems impossible for the Prussian ruling classes to understand that the evils of repression are not cured by more repression. It is a fact, he points out with evidence from history, that the national and economic awakening of the Poles and Danes in Germany is simply the reaction against force of two downtrodden races. The Danes have it even worse than the Poles, he reminds us, because, while the Poles are rapidly increasing in numbers and wealth, the Danes are a mere handful (100,000) against all the might of Prussia. When Bismarck repealed Clause V. of the Prague treaty, which ended the Prusso-Danish War, many Danes, discouraged at the prospect, became Germans, or sold out to Germans. All the machinery of the powerful Berlin government is applied to denationalize these Danes. The German language is taught in the schools; the country is deluged with officials; "all that is rich and noble belongs to the dominant race." Still the population does not waver.

It has its backbone in Danish culture. Danish literature and art are the mental property of even the peasant farmer, and when the children,—who do not emigrate any more,—have grown up they are sent to a Danish

high school to improve their neglected education. And they return firm in their resolution to take up the battle where the old generation left it.

This is the reason why, in spite of her overpowering strength, Germany has been unable to make any impression on the little band of Danes on her northern frontier. In spite of German colonization associations, in spite of German land banks and savings-banks amply provided with capital from *das Vaterland*, and in spite of the German Government, which employs the large funds belonging to the crown lands and forests for the purpose of buying land from the Danes,—in spite of all this, the Danes are slowly reacquiring their paternal soil.

As a result of the Germanizing efforts of the first thirty years, the number of Danish farms has increased, and that of the German farms decreased. For the Danish farmers will not become Germans any more than their Polish fellow-citizens. They continue to talk Danish, they teach the immigrated Germans to talk Danish, and very frequently the sons of these Germans become as zealous Danes as their neighbors. Even in the schools, the Danish boys are making proselytes among the immigrated children. This writer believes that in the end the Danish plowshare will conquer the German sword. He says, in conclusion:

The German Empire was founded by the sword; it is kept together by the sword,—the only tool which Germans, in spite of all their industrial and scientific ability, appear to understand the wielding of with real success. But the sword is not by any means a convincing argument against a subjugated race striving to defend its nationality and culture. And when the sword is met by the plowshare, then it will only be able to give a blow in the air. All the while the land is slowly but surely being plowed away from under the hand that wields the sword, and when some day the German sword is broken, or perhaps itself made into plowshares, the conquered races will still speak their own language on their own soil.

SOME FRANK GERMAN VIEWS OF ENGLAND.

AFTER many years of residence and business activity in England, an eminent German has come to some very unflattering conclusions regarding Britain's position, her people, and her prospects in the world. With what he calls the bluntness of a true friend (and under the protection of a *nom de plume*), this Teutonic critic contributes to the *National Review* his impressions, almost all of which are wholly unfavorable. In the first place, he declares that Englishmen are not patriotic. To a German, their indifference to their individual duties as citizens of a great empire is amazing. They look down on their army, in which the German

glories. English schools he regards as beneath comparison with German educational institutions. In fact, the British nation, he declares, "falls into two halves,—one of which has character without full intellectual equipment, and the other a mediocre intellectual equipment without character."

This strange difference between the two parts of the nation explains many of the apparent inconsistencies of England,—why you succeed in India and Egypt, where your men of character govern, and why you fail at home, where your men of character are powerless before the characterless mob. But unless you can change this state of affairs altogether it will go very

hard with you in the future, for the nations with which you will have to compete for mastery in the world are striving to implant in their citizens, even the meanest and humblest, strength of character. What will you English people do in a conflict with such antagonists if you have no deep-rooted sense of duty?

British primary education, he says, is surprisingly bad. Young English boys know nothing of the history or geography of their own land. Moreover, they have no idea of duty, and no knowledge that the "position of their country was won by sacrifices of past generations in war." The young people, he declares, are given to sport and carousing in England.

Nothing is done for the physical training of these young people; and the military service, which in my country forms and develops the manhood of the nation, greatly strengthening the character, is wanting in your land. You have painted fancy pictures of the German army dominated by brutal sergeants and non-commissioned officers; but while no doubt there are some faults in our army, you forget that if things were really as bad as you imagine the German system would be inevitably swept away, since we have manhood suffrage. I miss in your working class the sense of respect, cleanliness, punctuality, and obedience which military service gives, while I see in it an inability to resist the allurements of drink, which seems to me to proceed from some grave weakness of temperament. You have to compete, be it remembered, with the Americans and Japanese (neither of whom drink), as well as with ourselves; and unless you can produce the better type of man, or at least as good a type, how are you going to succeed in the competition?

IS BRITISH MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT BAD?

British towns are badly administered, he says, further,—quite the opposite of the German method.

It is impossible to find out who is responsible for what is done or left undone. The maximum of money is expended for the minimum of effect by a host of jarring authorities, who are driven on to foolish measures by the mob. The workingman pays little in the shape of rates, and he is consequently indifferent to economy; he knows nothing of finance, and he consequently violates its first principles. He has no stake in the town, as he can easily shift his residence if it languishes or decays through the immoderate burden of debt which he is tying round its neck. Yet he outvotes the owner of property, or the company which is prosecuting some great industry in that town, though both of these have a great stake in the continued prosperity of the place and in careful management. The local body which has foolishly borrowed millions or thousands slips away into obscurity when the mischief which it has done is detected, and there is no one to blame or punish.

AS TO BRITISH MILITARY VALOR.

Commenting upon the British repulses and retreats in South Africa, this writer observes that "the character and tenacity of a people are

judged by the losses which its armies will face on the battlefield." He continues:

Your "Japs," whom you so impertinently patronize, will consent to be killed to the last man. A nation which produces such an army, such soldiers, will always be respected, even if it is not loved. But the South African war showed that your men would retreat or put up the white flag if the loss rose above 6 or 7 per cent.; whence you are neither loved nor respected, nor, I may add, even feared. And that, if I may speak the truth, is why many Germans are indignant at your pretensions. A feeling is growing up in Germany that Germans are worthier of empire than you, and that your work in the world is done. The German measures himself with you, and sees that he is a far better and braver soldier; a more far-seeing and determined politician; a better administrator; a better business man; a better manufacturer; a more energetic and laborious worker. Perhaps I deplore this feeling, as I deplore anything which should cause trouble between our two peoples; but it is natural, as, from the Kaiser downward, every German is beginning to realize these things, and entirely through your fault. When you have not even courage to protect your own merchant shipping or fishermen, you can scarcely wonder that our German shipping is growing fast, or that, from artisan to monarch, we realize that your rule of the sea is over, and that "Germany's future lies upon the water." Yet you are angry with us and jealous of our merchant marine and of our navy. A generation hence we shall be protecting you, and you will be only too glad that we built a great fleet and became a naval power.

Englishmen, he says, do not seem to realize that a nation which has not "character enough and strength of will enough to make proper preparations for war, with the small amount of personal discomfort and sacrifice which they involve, will certainly be found wanting in patriotism and devotion when the actual conflict comes." As to English jealousy of German trade and the German navy, this critic declares that the future will see a further stagnation of British industries and a gradually increased expansion of German commerce, and he concludes as follows:

As for your empire, it appears to me unstable as a house of cards. A single hard push from a great power would bring it down, because of the want of patriotism in your people. Would they sacrifice themselves in tens of thousands to defend India? Would they suffer privation and want of food at home? You know that they would want peace at any price, and your statesmen, judging from their recent record, would find humanitarian excuses for the most shameful of surrenders, and pretend that they had hoisted the white flag out of sheer magnanimity. Your power of self-deception at times approaches the marvelous; but, unfortunately for yourselves, you are not the only power in the world, and there are nations on the Continent which are not deceived by your audacious make-believes, but which see you as you really are.

There are many grave weaknesses of temperament in the English people, says this critic, aggravated by the long run of British luck as a nation.

ENGLISH WOMEN WRITERS ON THE WOMAN'S MOVEMENT.

THERE are two papers in defense of the woman's movement in the *Fortnightly Review* for July replying to the recent attacks of Lucas Malet and other women writers.

Mrs. Caird, who entitles her paper "The Duel of the Sexes," remarks somewhat bitterly that

It is a curious and discouraging fact that the women who have profited most by the "woman's movement," those whose genius has enabled them to avail themselves to the full of the increased opportunities it would fain offer to all, have, nearly without exception, risen up to decry it and their sex with singular rancor and contempt.

Mrs. Caird thinks this true of Mrs. Craigie, Lucas Malet, and Miss Robins, of whose "Dark Lantern" she says:

It is a powerfully written modern version of the repellent old story of Patient Griselda, with the difference that the medieval ruffian is by many degrees less of a bully and a coward than his almost inconceivable twentieth-century prototype. Our old friend Rochester is a polished, delicately refined person beside him!

The popularity of this "pray knock me down and trample upon me" doctrine rouses the dark fear that emancipation may have come too late, that the servile nature in-bred for so many generations may have become so ingrained that the sex-slave hugs her chains.

TWO TENDENCIES OF THE MODERN WOMAN.

Mrs. Caird, however, plucks up her courage and recognizes two remarkable features in the development of the modern woman.

On the one hand, we find the shrinking from the maternal function in varying degrees of intensity; on the other, a desperate and overwhelming desire for it, quite regardless of the proprieties.

The orthodox mother, who has no tenderness for any children except her own, is a prey to a blind animal instinct which is gradually being idealized.

Why may we not dare to imagine maternal love growing in the direction of the *human*, depending more and more on personality, less and less on the accident of bodily relationship? May not the civilized woman come to love the *child* rather than her own flesh and blood; its soul rather than her *self*?

Maternal love at present is a projection of self-love. The difference between a stepmother and a mother marks the difference which ought not to exist between a truly maternal love of the helpless child and a merely selfish love of her own child.

AN INDIVIDUAL LIFE FOR WOMEN.

Mrs. Caird protests against the attempt to reestablish the old fetich to which has been sac-

rificed the individual life of the woman for the husband, the family, and the race, inflicting deep injuries on all three.

Happiness for men and women in close relationship it has rendered scarcely possible; it has made of them strangers and secret enemies; friendships between them it has so hampered and hunted that they have generally relinquished it in sheer discouragement; love it has handcuffed and dragooned till the wild thing has drooped and died, an old, old tragedy of how many a "happy home!" And as for the family and the race, they have shared in the misfortunes of their founders.

In the good time that is coming we are to change all that. Already the finer psychic sense is aware of a spiritual union more ideal and divine than that of which the poets have dreamed. With which cryptic utterance we leave Mrs. Caird and turn to Lady Grove.

LADY GROVE ON NATURE'S AFTERTHOUGHT.

Lady Grove is a disciple of Prof. Lester F. Ward, who proclaims that the male is a mere afterthought of nature. Woman is the primary, the original, sex, and therefore naturally and really the superior sex. She also swears by Mrs. Stetson's "Woman and Economics," and adopts the heresy that the race is oversexed. Woman has now awakened to a consciousness of the fact that her true mission, hitherto unconsciously pursued, is to humanize the male. Lady Grove speaks with no uncertain sound.

By desiring to maintain the subjection of women,—a state incidental to racial progress established in order to raise the male to a position of equality with the woman,—these people are in very deed enemies to their own kind, moles crawling in benighted regions of their own making, unconscious of the beautiful world above and around them. They are the fools who whisper in their hearts "There is no God." Who has not noticed that it is always the least virile and manly among the men who are so bent upon "keeping women in their proper place?"

QUANTITY VERSUS QUALITY IN CHILDREN.

As for President Roosevelt's insistence upon large families, Lady Grove asks:

Is not the quality rather than the quantity of children the thing to be aimed at? If, then, by improving women's status the breed improves, as improve it must, is not this preferable to the "plenty" in their present very mixed condition? Has no one sufficient imagination to see in their mind's eye a race that would be incapable of breeding this mass of "undesirable aliens" who are tossed about from shore to shore, welcome nowhere, and a curse to themselves?

THE EXTRAVAGANT ECONOMY OF WOMEN.

There is a third paper in the same review, brightly written, but hardly of such serious im-

port as the two others, entitled "The Extravagant Economy of Women," by Mrs. John Lane. She says that "it takes the great, splendid masculine spendthrifts in high places to glorify the world with treasures of priceless art." Women never have money, and so they make the extravagantly reckless economies, saving a penny at the cost of a pound. Especially does she condemn the rage for chiffons and the family joint.

If the Englishwoman would only take to the chiffons of cooking instead of the chiffons of clothes! It is an extravagance to cook badly; it is an extravagance to buy things because they are cheap; it is an extravagance to waste time in doing what some one else can do better (if one can afford it).

Mrs. Lane is a very lively writer whose contributions always add to the gayety, if not of nations, certainly of the periodicals.

HARVARD'S GERMANIC MUSEUM.

ODDLY enough, the first Germanic museum to be developed in the United States has been started in that part of the country where the influence of the Teutonic stock is least in evidence. The ancient Puritan community of Cambridge, Mass., where the German element in the population has always been comparatively slight, now takes the lead in developing an American museum of German civilization. Frederick W. Coburn, writing in the *Craftsman* (Syracuse, N. Y.) for July, attributes the founding of

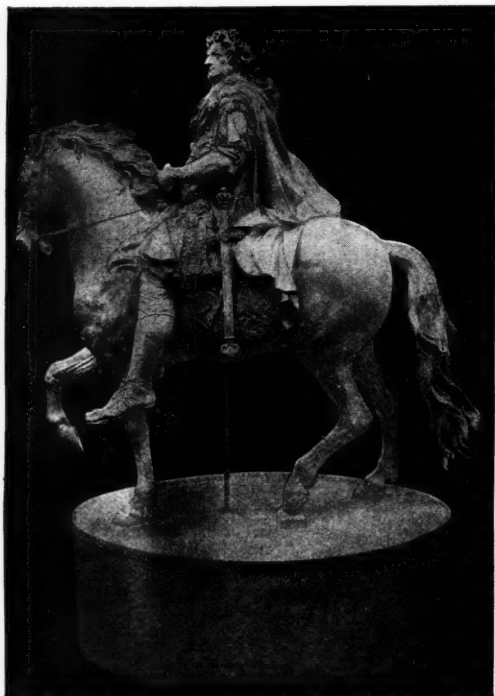
the museum to the energy and persistence of Prof. Kuno Francke and his colleagues in the German department of Harvard University.

The museum was dedicated in 1902, on the occasion of a reception given to Prince Henry of Germany by the Harvard Germanic Association. This organization had been founded at the suggestion of Professor Francke, and was presided over by the Hon. Carl Schurz, with the late Herbert Small acting as its secretary. The scheme of the museum is similar to that of a number of national museums in Europe,—the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, the Swiss Museum at Zurich, and the Hotel de Cluny at Paris. In the words of the prospectus:

Models and reproductions (either plaster or photographic) of typical work, illustrating Germanic life and character from the earliest times to the present day—from the Viking boat and the Anglo-Saxon hall to the national monument or the Niederwold will naturally be the first acquisitions. From the very beginning, however, it is proposed to make an effort to secure originals also; weapons and costumes, implements and utensils; engravings to illustrate the art of the engraver, or to show the customs of a period; books illustrating the history of printing; paintings, sculptures, and carvings of real value, artistically or historically. In selecting objects there will be strict adherence to the principle of avoiding that which is merely striking or curious, and of securing only what is typical and characteristic.

Casts of noteworthy specimens of German sculpture and architecture were made for the museum under the direction of Emperor William. The cost of making these casts was estimated by Berlin newspapers at almost half a million marks (\$125,000).

The most conspicuous object in the museum is the equestrian statue of Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg, of which the original, by Schluetter, is at Berlin. Another important specimen of German sculpture is Schadow's statue of Frederick the Great, in a reproduction which was also the gift of the Kaiser.



REPRODUCTION OF SCHLUETTER'S "ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG,"—THE GIFT OF EMPEROR WILLIAM TO THE HARVARD GERMANIC MUSEUM.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Midsummer Magazine Topics.—Light reading predominates in the August numbers, which are made up largely of stories and sketches appropriate to the season. Among the descriptive articles, first place is given to mountain and river touring, the *Century* leading off with a rather elaborate account of "Alpine Climbing in Automobiles," by Sterling Hellig. This writer's experience was in what is known as the Cup of the French Alps. He journeyed over seven mountain circuits in a sixteen horse-power four-cylinder automobile, and confesses to some astonishment that he has come back alive.—We have quoted in another part of this REVIEW from Mr. George D. Abraham's modest record of his achievements in scaling the peaks of Mont Blanc, as given in the *Cosmopolitan*. The same writer contributes to *Outing* an illustrated paper on "Climbing the High Alps," with many hints to amateur mountaineers.—The attractions of river steamboating as a mode of vacation travel are suggested in Thornton Oakley's "Mississippi Sketches," contributed to *Harper's*.—In *Outing*, L. D. Sherman hints at the delights of "Canoeing Down the Connecticut."—This month's *Century* opens with an extremely interesting illustrated comparison of American and English rowing, by Ralph D. Paine, formerly of the Yale crew.—The transatlantic yacht race of last May is exploited in two of the August magazines. Wilson Marshall, owner of the victorious *Atlantic*, tells in *Outing*, through Arthur Goodrich, the full story of his successful run from Sandy Hook to the Lizard. In *Leslie's*, Dr. Henry C. Rowland, who sailed on the *Endymion*, gives the racing log of that vessel, together with several rather remarkable photographs of scenes during the race.

Character Sketches.—The second portion of Miss Tarbell's character study of John D. Rockefeller appears in the August number of *McClure's*. This is not professedly an intimate study of Mr. Rockefeller; for Miss Tarbell admits that "there is probably not a public character in the United States whose private life is more completely concealed than is that of John D. Rockefeller." Miss Tarbell's study, therefore, has to do rather with Mr. Rockefeller as president of the Standard Oil Company, in his relations to the American public. Her point of view is indicated by her elaborate "History of the Standard Oil Company." The sum of her judgments is unfavorable, yet there is a notable absence of malice in her expressions of opinion and an evident attempt to deal justly with her subject.—The character sketch of Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, by David Graham Phillips, in *Success* is thoroughly entertaining. Mr. Phillips was a fellow-student with young Beveridge at De Pauw University, Greencastle, Ind. He tells with gusto of the embryo Senator's struggles to get a college education, and of his brilliant successes in various college competitions,—notably in oratory, where he won the interstate contest, a great

honor in those days.—Under the title "Labor Leaders and Where They Are Leading," Henry Kitchell Webster contributes to *Leslie's* brief and clever characterizations of Samuel Gompers, John Mitchell, Eugene V. Debs, and one or two other men now prominent in the labor movement.—In this month's *Cosmopolitan*, Alfred Henry Lewis begins the "Story of Paul Jones," giving himself the liberty of the fiction-writer in treating this historical character.—*Munsey's* has an excellent account of the career of Admiral Sir John Fisher,— "The Reformer of the British Navy,"—by Fred T. Jane.

Religious and Theological Discussion.—Among those journals which have heretofore been regarded as being distinctly theological in their subject matter we find a growing tendency to admit articles on secular themes. In some of the current quarterlies, from one-third to one-half of the articles are devoted to non-religious topics. In some of these so-called theological journals literary themes seem to exercise a potent influence, while in others economic and sociological matters are discussed at great length. In the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, which represents the Methodist Episcopal Church South, there are articles on Washington Irving, Wordsworth, and the Elizabethan Age of English letters; while the *Methodist Review*, published by the Northern branch of the Church, goes so far afield as to publish an article by Prof. Victor Wilker on Fritz Reuter, the famous Low German humorist. The same journal has a study of George Cassell Rankin, the Minnesota poet, by the Rev. Albert Osborn, while the opening article of the current number is a description of the road traversed by Chaucer's Canterbury pilgrims. This interesting article is contributed by the Rev. John Telford, of Dorking, England.—Prof. T. W. Hunt contributes to the *Princeton Theological Review* an analysis of "The Elements of Shakespeare's Genius."—Among the politico-sociological contributions to the current theological journals are: "The Submerged Tenth Among the Southern Mountaineers," by the Rev. Marion G. Rombo, and "Jap and Negro: A Similarity of Social Problems," by the Rev. William H. Butler,—both articles appearing in the *Methodist Review* (New York); and "The Negro South and North," by W. E. Burghardt DuBois, in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* (Oberlin, Ohio).—The same periodical contains Prof. G. Frederick Wright's defense of the Standard Oil Company, which is quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," and also an interesting chapter from the history of Florence,— "An Ancient Story of Politics and Reform," by Prof. Henry H. Powers.—Among the more strictly technical contributions to recent numbers of these journals are: "The Relation of the Minister to Civic Reform," by J. H. Ecob, D.D., in the *Homiletic Review* for July; "The Nineteenth Psalm in the Criticism of the Nineteenth Century," by John

D. Davis, in the *Princeton Theological Review*; "The Christocentric Theology," by John Wright Bucham, in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for July; "The Missionary Interpretation of History," by Prof. R. T. Stevenson, in the *Methodist Review* (New York); and "Protestantism and the Religious Situation in Japan," by Dr. S. H. Wainwright, in the *Methodist Quarterly Review* (Nashville).—Papers on the higher criticism in its

various phases are by no means numerous in the current theological reviews. An article favorable to higher criticism appears in the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, of Nashville, from the pen of the Rev. J. T. Curry, presiding elder of the Tennessee Conference. Dr. George S. Rollins contributes to the *Bibliotheca Sacra* a scholarly paper entitled "The Hand of Apollus in the Fourth Gospel."

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

England's Share in Togo's Victory.—Mr. Archibald Hurd, writing in the *Fortnightly Review*, remarks that "to the British people the achievement of the Japanese fleet in the great battle in the Sea of Japan is of peculiar and intimate interest. An admiral who received his early professional training in England, and who served afloat in British men-of-war, has won the greatest naval victory in history—not excepting Trafalgar—with men-of-war constructed almost exclusively in British shipyards, and using as weapons of offense guns and torpedoes similar to those employed by the British fleets and squadrons. Admiral Togo's chief of staff, Captain Shimamura, like many of his colleagues, served in the British fleet, and he had the good fortune to be one of Rear-Admiral Percy Scott's pupils in gunnery. Years ago, when Japan was adopting Western methods, she was the pupil in naval matters of Admiral Sir Archibald Douglas, now commander-in-chief at Portsmouth, who was director of the Imperial Naval College at Yeddo, and had around him a devoted band of British naval officers and men. In later years,—in fact, almost down to the opening of the war with China,—Rear-Admiral John Ingles was lent by the admiralty to the Japanese Government as naval adviser. While the Japanese authorities were shaping their systems of training and administration on British models, orders were dispatched to British shipbuilding yards for men-of-war, and in every respect the young navy was given the hall-mark 'Made in Great Britain.' The triumph of the Mikado's fleet—small, but homogeneous—surely reflects some luster upon the British fleet."

Is a Russo-Japanese Alliance Possible?—In strong contrast to Mr. Hayakawa's suggestion of an alliance between Russia and Japan, which was discussed in the June issue of this REVIEW, Mr. Isobe's article, appearing in a recent number of the *Chokugen*, a Tokio weekly, is enthusiastic for the continuance of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. As for an alliance between the two nations now fighting in the far East, Mr. Isobe considers it absolutely impossible. Referring to the article in the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, immediately after the fall of Port Arthur, advocating the formation of a working alliance between Russia and Japan, Mr. Isobe says: "The present war, it must be confessed, has shown us that the Russian people are not without those generous sentiments which fit in well with Yamato-Damashii, a Japanese war correspondent [he refers here to Mr. Shiga, whose article, "One of the Secrets of Japanese Victories," is reviewed on another page of this magazine], who has gone so far as to intimate that a coalition of Russia and Japan would carry everything before it. Such a coalition, however, is absolutely impossible. All considerations,—political, social, scientific, literary, and spiritual,—are against it. We owe too much to the Anglo-Saxon race, represented by Eng-

land and America. It is the Anglo-Saxon type of civilization which we have assimilated. The Anglo-Japanese alliance was not the growth of a single night. It grew as natural as a tree. It is rooted deeply in the mutual affinity of the two nations. The alliance has been concluded in peace, and is not a mutual understanding arrived at after cutting each other's throat. To enter into an alliance with Russia at the expense of England's good-will would be to pass from a coalition of peace and fair play to a coalition of conquest and spoliation. It is directly against the self-imposed mission of Japan, which has been for peace in the far East."

Failure of Italian School Gymnastics.—It is twenty-six years since physical culture was made compulsory in the public schools of Italy, and 600,000 lire (\$120,000) is annually spent on it, but now there is talk of abolishing it. In the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Saveria Santori discusses the reasons for the failure of the system to produce the desired results. One is the lack of proper athletic fields. Most schools have only roofed courts, and many not even these. This is so even at Turin, called the cradle of physical culture. In one school there, five classes use one gymnastic court two hours a week, or twenty-four minutes a week apiece. Many Roman schools have no gymnastics. The exercises and the courts lack attractiveness, and it is quite the rule for parents to get physicians' certificates to excuse their children from the classes. The gymnastic professors are often old, and inspire little confidence, and are so poorly paid that they must engage in other occupations. The writer favors abolishing the official gymnastics and facilitating participation in the various sporting societies for canoeing, cycling, swimming, fencing, etc., even granting subventions to the best athletic associations.

Artificial Silk Threatens Sericulture.—The threatened competition of artificial silk with the silk industry of Italy is discussed at length by Ernesto Mancini in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), and by D. Lampertico in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). There are now eight or ten factories producing artificial silk from the cellulose of cotton, put through treatment by acids and alkalis, and spun through microscopic glass tubes. Various processes are used,—that of De Char-donnet at Besançon; that of Du Vivier, which adds gelatine to the cellulose, making a more resistant and less inflammable fiber; that of Lehner, in which the filaments are picked up by a revolving cylinder and mechanically twisted into threads and skeins; that of Cross and Bevan, which produces viscous silk, suitable for covering paper and fabrics, but not for spinning; and that which makes "vandura," whose threads are treated with gutta-percha and insoluble gelatine. The

product is sold at about three dollars a pound, and the present production is about ten thousand pounds a day. A Frankfort factory paid a dividend of 35 per cent. in 1904. Companies with a capital of two million francs are said to have earned a million and a half last year. Other companies are forming, and the prices are bound to fall. The artificial silk is chiefly used in passementerie, braids, trimmings, and fancy stuffs for cravats, hangings, and other uses not requiring the resistance of real silk, with which it is often mixed. It is used also in its filament state in wigs. In France, the silk-culturists are agitating for a law prohibiting the use of the word *soie* to designate the artificial product. The Agrarian Society of Lombardy resolved to ask the government to require that a particular distinguishing mark be placed on all stuffs or products containing artificial silk, and that the name of silk be denied it. Furthermore, the society asked for a law forbidding the sale as pure silk of those fabrics supercharged with dyestuffs or mineral matter. This "loading" of silks is little known among the uninitiated, but it appears from these articles that one pound of silk can and is made to weigh four or five pounds by the addition of various salts, gelatine, or sugar. Signor Mancini states that pure silk is now practically unknown on the market. The loaded silk cracks and breaks, and is in every way inferior in durability to pure silk. The menace of the artificial product and the adulteration in manufacture is stirring the sericulturists to better methods of raising and feeding the silkworms, and as care can do much in the many operations, the ancient Italian industry may hold its own against the new competition for a time.

Anti-Dueling Propaganda in Italy.—Anti-duelism is a reform movement in Europe similar to temperance or woman suffrage in the United States. A congress of the Anti-duelistic League of Austria was held late in March, and an address on the anti-duel movement in Italy, delivered there by Annibale Campani, is reproduced in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). It was not until 1902 that the formation of the league against duels in Italy was agitated. Four hundred persons of note, including twenty-two retired admirals and generals, signed the proposal. The minister of war at that time would only say, "Perhaps, when the times have changed, the minister of war may also join an international league against duels." Thus, aid of active army officers could not be asked. Founded in 1903, the Italian league had considerable success, the Lombardy section numbering nine hundred members, but in 1904 interest fell off, and only since January, 1905, has there been renewed activity, with several new local leagues formed. Signor Campani says that two chief obstacles encountered in other countries, the pro-duelist opinion and the lack of courage to proclaim one's opposition to duels, are not the chief obstacles in Italy. The official *devise* of even those who fight duels is anti-duelistic. The pressure of public opinion for duels is weaker than in other countries. Outside the army and the clubs, if one refuse to fight and act sensibly about it he is let alone.

Formic Acid as a Stimulant and a Cure for Rheumatism.—In the pharmacopœia of the seventeenth century the formula of a powerful stimulant was given called "The Water of Magnanimity; Hoffman's prescription—an external stomachic excitant and

diuretic cordial." The druggists of that day all sold it, and the formula was found in the medical dictionaries, and in the "Pharmacopie Universelle de Lemary" (1754). The whole subject is revived and treated in the light of modern science by an anonymous writer in the *Correspondant* (Paris). The formula given in the "Pharmacopie Universelle" is: "Take two handfuls of ants and one pint of spirits of wine, let the ants digest in the wine, shut in an air-tight bottle until natural putrefaction has dissolved the ants and incorporated them with the liquor. When the solution is perfect, distill the liquor in a water bath, and flavor (or perfume) the medicine with a little cinnamon." This is the "Water of Magnanimity" as prescribed by a prelate of the Latin Church of one of the great religious centers of the world in the seventeenth century. Dr. P. Guigues, professor of the French faculty of Baireuth, recently wrote from Saville that the same remedy is found in the official formulas of Germany and Switzerland. The medicinal properties of formic acid, he claims, were known long before the seventeenth century. He goes on to declare that the Russian peasants have a custom of preparing a medicine of uncooked ants in *vodka*. It is known, also, that the Mexicans use an infusion of ants in alcohol as an excitant. A number of French doctors who have studied the matter declare that this old remedy is of great value in many maladies, including rheumatism. Formic acid augments muscular strength and increases the power to resist fatigue. Its properties are greatly superior to cola, coca, and others. Dr. Clement, a French physician, experimented with this medicine, taking from eight to ten drops of formic acid a day, in water prepared to neutralize its acidity. Almost immediately after taking the medicine, he declares, "I feel the need of active exercise. I want to be doing something,—anything,—climb a mountain. This amount ought to be taken by people who are always tired." Under his direction, a young Frenchman tried his strength by scientific apparatus before and after taking the medicine. It was found that he was able to do five times as much muscular work afterward as before. The doses employed did not exceed forty drops of formic acid, neutralized by carbonate of soda, per day,—the dose being twenty drops taken in half a glass of water twice a day. Whatever bad effects this drug may have remain to be discovered.

A German View of British Colonial Governors.—In the German magazine *Velhagen*, Dr. Hans Plehn has an article on "three of the most important personages of political England,"—namely, Lord Cromer, Lord Milner, and Lord Curzon. The writer describes Egypt, South Africa, and India as the great center of Britain's imperial interests, for her economic and political position depends largely on them, and in all three her position either has been or seems to be more or less endangered by other powers. He notes that the British colonial governors have a much freer hand than the German colonial administrators. He refers to Mr. Chamberlain as the first English colonial secretary who was at the same time a great statesman, the distinguishing point of his administration being his choice of men to fill the most responsible posts. When he went to the colonial office he began a colonial policy in the imperial sense, and thus gave Cairo, Cape Town, and Calcutta a much greater significance, while the three men who have held office in these three possessions have embodied an important part of England's

imperial politics. Biographies of each of the three governors are added, the writer being careful to note that Lord Cromer and Lord Milner are both partly of German extraction.

Compulsory Insurance Against Illness.—An article on this subject, by a Dutch writer named Smisaerl, appears in *Onze Eeuw* (Haarlem). The principle of such a law, as exemplified by the German method, is to give the employer power to deduct a certain weekly or monthly sum from the wages of his workers, add a percentage himself, and hand the combined sum over to those intrusted with the administration of the municipal or national fund; to this fund the state also contributes. One of the questions which is agitating the Dutch mind is: Shall the administrative council consist of workmen, or employers, or both? There is, of course, the further suggestion that it should be controlled by state or municipal officials. There are advantages and disadvantages in all these methods, but it would appear to the onlooker that the fairest way would be to have a combination of workmen, employers, and state officials.

International Labor Legislation.—In the *Correspondant* there is appearing a series of studies by Léon Poliér on the question of the international protection of labor down to the Berne conference. The writer thinks the idea of international protection of workers in a fair way to be realized. Last year France and Italy signed the first labor treaty, and the recent Berne conference of delegates from the leading nations with a view to make more uniform all national labor legislation is another step in the right direction. The writer endeavors to show what has already been done, what is going to be done, and what may be expected in the future from such a movement. Logically, the first appeal in favor of an international agreement for the protection of labor ought, he says, to have come from England, for it was here that the first factory legislation was organized. The first to move in the matter, however, was a French workman, Daniel Legrand, who in 1841 pleaded for an international conference. His request was unheeded, and in 1857 he appealed to the cabinets of Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Paris, and Turin. Meanwhile, others had taken up the question. In 1855, two Swiss cantons, Glaris and Zurich, saw the necessity of a uniform system of factory legislation in the chief industrial states of Europe. For a time, however, they would be satisfied with intercantonal legislation in Switzerland alone. Modest as this proposal seems, it took over twenty years to put it into execution, and it was not till 1878 that a federal regulation of factories was established. Nevertheless, the idea continued to grow, Switzerland still playing a leading part. In 1890, the date of an international conference to be held at Berne was fixed, when suddenly the German Emperor issued his famous manifestoes, making his own the Swiss proposal, and inviting Switzerland to take part in a conference, after having received from her an invitation in the same sense previously. The Berlin conference had a tremendous programme, and as a practical result various reforms were

described as "desirable." Later, congresses were held at Zurich and Brussels in 1897, and at Paris in 1900, and an International Association for the Legal Protection of Labor, as well as an International Bureau at Bâle, were finally founded. The association, adds the writer, is due to private initiative.

As to Spinal Meningitis.—Cerebro-spinal meningitis is not a new disease. It has been known in France for two centuries. In 1838, it appeared in the garrison at Bayonne, France, where it raged for three years, having been due to the cold, damp weather and close crowding in the barracks. From this garrison it spread to a number of military posts in the south of France, until it became almost a plague. There was no question as to its character. It was a contagious disease, carried by the troops whenever they changed garrison, and spread by them among the people of the towns near their barracks. The disease to-day has lost none of its virulence. It is what it was two centuries ago. Its evolutions cover two periods, which are thus described by a medical writer in the *Annales*, of Paris, who does not sign his name: First, the period of intense fever, muscular contractions, and violent pains in the head; second, the period of depression, stupor, paralysis, insensibility, and coma. Death generally comes at the end of an attack varying in length from four to eight days. In some cases the victim dies after a struggle of a few hours. Light attacks can be cured rapidly. There has never been any complete agreement as to the cause of this sickness, although it is known that there is some connection between it and "the grip," as well as with the microbe of pneumonia. According to Professor Weischsebaum, it has a special microbe, but the microbe organism is so difficult of culture that its existence seems illusory. The treatment recommended by Dr. Dienlofoy is similar to that recommended for "the grip." He advises hot baths and antispasmodics. It would seem probable that the germs of the disease enter through the nostrils. During a mild epidemic of meningitis in the garrison of Angoulême, Dr. Mandoul found the microbe in the nasal tubes of twelve out of fifteen men who had escaped the disease.

The Unemployed Problem in England.—Mr. Isaac H. Mitchell maintains, in the *Nineteenth Century*, that the trade-unions do more for the out-of-works than the government bill proposes to accomplish. He suggests that "it would surely be cheaper and better for public authorities to spend money for extra labor cost in winter than to spend large sums on extra poor-law costs, or even on farm-colony work. Notwithstanding regulation, notwithstanding an intelligent anticipation of bad times and the pushing forward of public works, it is conceivable that still there would be those wanting work who could not obtain it. To supply this need, the government bill might be useful, but without the better regulation of present employment, which would aim at making the hours of labor, and not the number employed, the elastic part of our productive system, the government unemployed workmen bill will be as disappointing in its results as its machinery is likely to prove dangerous in its operation."



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN AND FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

TO an American scholar and diplomat, Dr. David Jayne Hill, who is now our minister at The Hague, the world is indebted for the first general history of European diplomacy in any language. Dr. Hill's elaborate work,—"A History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe" (Longmans),—will be completed in six volumes, only the first of which, dealing with "The Struggle for Universal Empire," has appeared at this writing. The plan of the work includes a full discussion of the motives inspiring diplomacy in their bearing on the origin and development of an international system. The author has pushed his investigations far back of the Peace of Westphalia, which is commonly taken as the starting-point of European diplomacy. The conflicting ambitions of the Holy Roman Empire and the Papacy must first be studied in detail, and his first volume, complete in itself for the period which it covers, is largely devoted to an exposition of those ambitions. The following volume, on "The Establishment of Territorial Sovereignty," will further trace the development of modern states. Future volumes, it is announced, will consider the diplomacy of the age of absolutism, of the revolutionary era, of the constitutional movement, and of commercial imperialism, thus bringing the history of international development down to the present time.

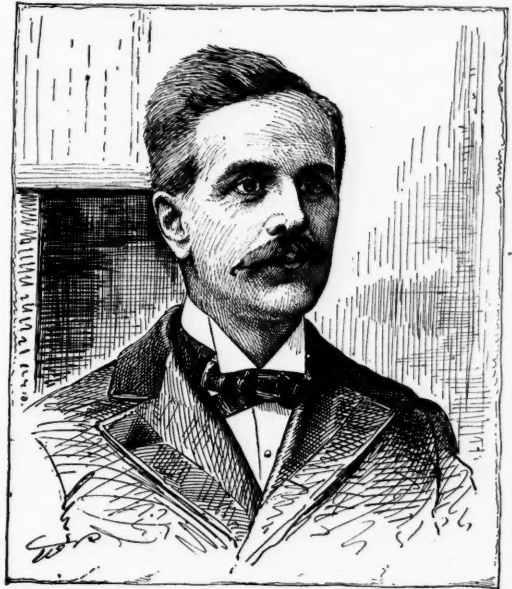
"Ireland's Story," by Charles Johnston and Carita Spencer (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is such a book as has long been needed in American schools, to do for Irish history something like what is done for England by historians like John Richard Green. In the case of Ireland, any history must perforce be a history of the Irish people, and in no modern land have the records of the ancient folk-life been more jealously cherished. The authors of the present volume have had in mind, however, the future as well as the past of the Irish race. Among the most interesting chapters of the book are those which define the contributions that the race has made and is making to modern world-progress,— "The Irish on the Continent," "The Irish in America," "The Irish in the British Empire," and "The Irish Literary Revival." All in all, this volume gives an excellent epitome of Irish history.

BOOKS ON JAPAN AND THE JAPANESE.

Bushido, the Japanese conception of chivalry, is unwritten, but, like the English conception, out of it has grown the nation of to-day. A delightfully written exposition of Japanese philosophic and social thought, under the title "Bushido, the Soul of Japan," has been written by Dr. Inazo Nitobe, professor in the Imperial University of Kioto. The tenth and enlarged edition of this work, with an introduction by William Elliot Griffis, has just been issued by the Putnams. *Bushido* is the sum of the maxims of educational training brought to bear on the warrior class of Japan, the Samurai,—a class which throughout the long feudal age of Japan set the standard of the whole people in

manners, character, and mental and moral codes of obligation.

This code of *bushido* has so formed and molded the Japanese national character that Christian missions find excellent soil for the inculcation of the doctrines of Christ. The progress made by Christian proselytizing and general influence in Japan is traced by Ernest Wilson Clement (author of "A Handbook of Modern Japan") in a new volume issued by the American Bap-



MR. ERNEST WILSON CLEMENT.

tist Publication Society and entitled "Christianity in Modern Japan." This is not a detailed study, but a general outline, with references to books where more complete information can be obtained. The volume is well illustrated, and is provided with an excellent mission map. Mr. Clement, it will be remembered, is the principal of the Duncan Baptist Academy, in Tokio.

The Japan of the future as indicated by young Japan of to-day is the subject of a volume by Dr. James A. B. Scherer, entitled "Young Japan" (Lippincott). Dr. Scherer writes not a history of Japan so much as a history of the Japanese people, their institutions and their life, economically and industrially. The volume is profusely illustrated from photographs and pictures by native artists.

A little manual which may prove useful to travelers in Japan has been issued by William R. Jenkins,— "Japanese for Daily Use." This is a rendering of useful English phrases into Japanese, with some vocabulary, and has been prepared by E. P. Prentys, assisted by Kamentara Sasamoto.



MRS. EDITH WHARTON.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

A manual for travelers, which treats only of the traveling and scarcely any of the sightseeing, is "The Traveler's Handbook for Transatlantic Tourists" (Funk & Wagnalls). The compiler, —Josephine Tozier, author of "Many English Inns," —has planned to help those intending to visit Europe for the first time. She has made, not a guide-book, but has collected in one compact and convenient volume many hints and suggestions as to the preliminaries for crossing the Atlantic comfortably, and as to a comprehension of the conditions of transportation in Europe.

A very convenient little book of description is Prof. J. A. Mets' "The Holland of To-Day," published by Honeyman & Co. (Plainfield, N. J.). One gets an excellent idea of the modern Dutch people and their customs from this little manual, which is arranged in convenient, accessible form.

Another book on Paris by F. Berkeley Smith comes from the press of Funk & Wagnalls, entitled "Parisians Out-of-Doors." This completes Mr. Smith's trilogy of books on Parisian life. The two preceding volumes have been entitled "The Real Latin Quarter" and "How Paris Amuses Itself." Mr. Smith knows perfectly well how to write good, interesting description, and what more interesting people can you find than the modern Parisian? This volume is handsomely bound, and illustrated in color, with a frontispiece by F. Hopkinson Smith.

Mrs. Edith Wharton's "Italian Backgrounds," with illustrations by E. C. Peixotto, is published by the

Scribners. An intimate acquaintance with Italian art and nature, an insight into southern life, and an exquisite literary style, —all of which belong to this writer, —are necessary for such a study. The artist has well supplemented the text.

"The Bontoc Igorot" is the title of an illustrated monograph by Albert Ernest Jenks in the Ethnological Survey publications of the Philippine government. The natives described in this study, it should be explained, are regarded as typical of the primitive mountain farmers of northern Luzon. The writer lived for five months in Bontoc pueblo, gathering data for the present work. His impressions of the Bontoc Igorot were favorable. He found him endowed with a fine physique, with no destructive vices; courageous, industrious, mentally alert, and willing to learn. Mr. Jenks declares that his institutions are not radically opposed to our own.

SOME BOOKS ON ART AND LITERATURE.

"The Life and Letters of J. H. Shorthouse" (Macmillan), edited by his wife, have just appeared in two volumes. The literary remains of the author of "John Inglesant" cannot fail to be interesting to Americans as well as to Englishmen. Mr. Shorthouse's peculiar claim to appreciation in this country lies, perhaps, in the fact that, while actively engaged in business, and with no great preliminary advantages, handicapped by delicate health, he still found time and energy to acquire a high culture and the wide and deep study necessary for successful writing.

The Paris house of Armand Colin is issuing a finely illustrated and printed "History of Art," which is being imported in parts, as they are issued, by G. E. Stechert. This illustrated history is from the earliest Christian times to our own day. The entire work will be issued in eight parts, of which four have already appeared.

It would seem as though the series of books on different phases of the beautiful by Miss Lillian Whiting were unlimited. Her latest is entitled "The Outlook Beautiful" (Little, Brown). In this volume, Miss Whiting again emphasizes her Emersonian attitude toward life, and, indeed, her philosophy and style are very stimulating and suggestive.

In his study of "The Development of the English Novel" (Macmillan), Prof. Wilbur L. Cross (Yale) aims to trace "in outline the course of English fiction from Arthurian romance to Stevenson, and to indicate, —especially in the earlier chapters, —Continental sources and tributaries." Professor Cross has done a thorough and useful work.

A book with a larger scope, but necessarily more rapid in its treatment, is "A First View of English Literature" (Scribners), by William Vaughn Moody and Robert Morss Lovett. This is an illustrated condensation of the more advanced "History of English Literature," by the same authors. There is much valuable geographical, descriptive, and annotative matter.

A careful and closely woven study of "The Psychology of Beauty" (Houghton, Mifflin) has been written by Ethel D. Puffer. The whole field of beauty is brought under discussion. The author has intended to present a "synthesis of the intellectual tendencies of the time, in which the results of modern psychology shall help to make intelligible a philosophical theory of beauty."

An essay on the art of ancient Greece, entitled "A Grammar of Greek Art" (Macmillan), has been prepared by Dr. Percy Gardner, professor of classical

archæology at Oxford. Dr. Gardner has attempted to describe and correlate the later and more important results of investigation and discovery in the field of classical antiquarian research.

The latest book of Wagneriana is called "Richard Wagner to Mathilde Wesendonck." This consists of the correspondence between the composer and Frau Wesendonck from 1858 to 1865. The volume, which has been translated, edited, and prefaced by William Ashton Ellis, is published in London and imported by the Scribners. Most of the letters are of considerable interest to music and art lovers.



MATHILDE WESENDONCK.

Dr. A. C. Bradley's lectures on the tragedies of Shakespeare have been revised and published in book form in a second edition by the Macmillans. Dr. Bradley, who is professor of poetry at Oxford, covers the entire significance of thought and form in the great tragedies of "Hamlet," "Othello," "King Lear," and "Macbeth." The title of the volume is "Shakespearean Tragedy."

We are in receipt of the following books of verse: "Fenris, the Wolf," a tragedy, by Percy Mackaye (Macmillan); "The Iberian," an Anglo-Greek play, by Osborn R. Lamb and H. Claiborne Dixon (New York: Ames & Rollinson); "In Response," by William E. Raymond, published by the author; "The Rubáiyát of the Twentieth Century and the Song of the Stars," a poem, by "Calchas" (Bridgeport, Conn.: Dewar); and "Legends and Tales in Prose and Verse," compiled by Isabel E. Cohen (The Jewish Publication Society).

The English house of Duckworth is issuing a series of small, handsomely illustrated and printed volumes, with the general title, "The Popular Library of Art."

These works are being imported by the Duttons, and the latest issue to reach this country is the one on "Velasquez," which has been translated from the French of Auguste Bréal by Mme. Simon Bussy. The volume on "Rembrandt" is also a translation from Bréal.

Marshall P. Wilder has brought out another book. This time it is called "The Sunny Side of the Street," and consists of a series of anecdotes and observations on the humorous side of life, some intimate bits of personalia about well-known men, and some witty chat about things in general. The volume is illustrated.

A selection of keen, brilliant epigrams of Oscar Wilde has been published in attractive typographical form by John Luce, of Boston, under the title "Epigrams and Aphorisms." There is an introduction by George Henry Sargent.

A series of bright epigrams and sayings, by Helena Woljeska, has been issued by the Life Publishing Company, under the title "A Woman's Confessional." The epigrams are extracts from a woman's journal, and reveal her intimate thoughts,—some bitter and sad, some cheerful and loving, most of them bright and incisive.

The latest issue of the series of Modern Messages being published by Jennings & Graham is a second edition of Charles Stuart Given's bright little book, "The Fleece of Gold."

A delicious study of child and nature writing is "The Well in the Wood" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Leston Taylor. It is full of quaint philosophy, and there are some excellent illustrations in color by F. Y. Cory.

"A Reading Journey Through Chautauqua" is an imaginary tour, concretely illustrated by photographs giving a history of the "Chautauqua System of Popular Education." Bishop John H. Vincent contributes an introduction and a brief statement of the Chautauqua idea. The evolution of Chautauqua during the last thirty years from a two weeks' summer camp to an all-the-year-round institution is a remarkable phenomenon, peculiarly American. "Chautauqua" is seen to be an institutional town, a vacation school for the whole family, an idea experiment station, a clearing house for social and educational forces, a pioneer summer school, a unique summer community, the mother of study clubs, a feeder of colleges, a real *alma mater* to hundreds of thousands of out-of-school people. This reading journey combines the qualities of history, story, guide, and souvenir. The author, Frank Chapin Bray, is the editor of the *Chautauquan* magazine.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

One of the most useful and comprehensive dictionaries of the French and English languages is the one issued by Hinds, Noble & Eldredge in their series of uniform international dictionaries, edited by Robert Morris Pierce. This French-English, English-French volume has been issued under the editorial supervision of M. Paul Passy (of the University of Paris) for French pronunciation, and of Prof. George Hemple (University of Chicago) for English pronunciation. The typography is very clear and pleasant to read, and the renderings, though brief, appear to be adequate and accurate.

We have received the first six numbers of a popular encyclopædia being issued in parts by Salvat & Co., Barcelona, Spain. This is an illustrated work, devoted principally to a record of inventions and general knowledge, and is one of the most ambitious things recently issued in the Spanish language.

William R. Jenkins has issued another French grammar in the Bercy Series. It is entitled "Simple Grammaire Française," by Paul Bercy and M. Georges Castegnier.

EDITED AND ANNOTATED STANDARD TEXTS IN ENGLISH AND OTHER LANGUAGES.

Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. have issued, in their Temple School Shakespeare Series, "The Merchant of Venice," with notes by R. McWilliam and illustrations by Dora Curtis, and, in the First Folio Shakespeare set, Messrs. T. Y. Crowell & Co. have just brought out "Hamlet." In the Pocket American and English Classics now being issued in handy form by the Macmillans we have Hawthorne's "House of Seven Gables," with introduction and notes by Clyde Furst (Columbia). A number of handy texts of French, German, and Spanish classics come to us from Henry Holt and D. C. Heath. These are all edited with noted and supplementary matter. The French texts are: "Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon," a comedy in four acts, by Eugène Labiche and Edward Martin (Holt); "Selections from Zola," edited by Dr. A. Guyot Cameron, of Princeton (Holt); and Chateaubriand's "Atala," edited by Prof. Oscar Kuhns, of Wesleyan University (Heath). From Holt we have the German "Deutsche Bildungszustände in der Zweiten Hälfte des Achtzehnten Jahrhunderts," by Dr. Karl Biedermann, edited by Mr. John A. Walz, of Harvard, and Sealsfield's "Die Prärie am Jacinto," edited by Prof. A. B. Nichols, of Simmons College. Heath issues the Spanish text, which is "Victoria y Otros Cuentos," by Julia de Asensi, edited by Edwin S. Ingraham, of Ohio State University.

"Southern Writers," a book of selections in prose and verse, edited by Prof. W. P. Trent (Macmillan), was designed primarily for use in school and college classes in the South. Yet it was as far as possible from the editor's intention to compile a book that should be regarded as a sectional product, in the unpleasant sense of the term. It is natural and reasonable that Southern students should desire to study the writers of their own region in somewhat more detail than is possible when only general text-books on American literature are employed. This book provides supplementary reading of this character, and affords Southern boys and girls an opportunity to become familiar, to a degree, with some of the masterpieces of Southern writers.

RELIGIOUS TREATISES.

Among the volumes on religious subjects of more or less note issued during the past few weeks are: "The Bible Allegories: An Interpretation," by George Millen Jarvis (published by the author); "The Eternal Life," by Hugo Munsterberg, an essay on the relation of modern science to a belief in immortality, reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly* (Houghton, Mifflin); "Young People and World Evangelization," by John Franklin Goucher (Jennings & Graham); "Renaissance of Methodism," by J. W. Mahood (Jennings & Graham); a new text, with notes, of the Gospel of Mark in the original Greek, edited by William Prentiss Drew, of the Greek chair in Willamette University

(Sanborn, of Boston); "Family Prayers," by Lyman P. Powell, with an introduction by Bishop Whitaker (Jacobs); "Paths to Power" (Revell), the first published addresses of Rev. Frank W. Gunsaulus; and two pamphlets issued by the American Baptist Publication Society,— "An American Commentary on the Old Testament (the Proverbs and the Song of Songs), by Profs. G. R. Berry and G. E. Merrill, and a little sermon, entitled "The Child and God," by M. T. Lamb.

DISCUSSIONS IN PHILOSOPHY.

Prof. James H. Hyslop (formerly of the chair of logic and ethics at Columbia University), in his volume "Science and a Future Life" (Herbert B. Turner), discusses the problem of life after bodily death from data



DR. JAMES H. HYSLOP.

accumulated by the Society of Psychical Research. Dr. Hyslop makes no argument for or against the existence of a future life. He considers the evidence scientifically, basing his argument upon experiments conducted by Sir Oliver Lodge, the late Prof. Henry Sidgwick, Professor James, of Harvard, the late Mr. Frederick Myers, and a number of others, including some valuable experimental work of his own. The celebrated

Mrs. Piper case is given an entire chapter.

"The Ethics of Force" is the title of a book by H. E. Warner, issued by Ginn & Co. for the International Union. It is made up of a series of papers originally read before the Ethical Club, of Washington.

Wilhelm Bölsche's "Evolution of Man" has been translated from the German and edited by Ernest Untermann, and published by Charles H. Kerr. It is a useful summary of the evolutionary doctrine and writings of a generation of scientists following Darwin.

MEDICAL SCIENCE.

The terrific ravages of plague in India, where thirty or forty thousand victims a week have been carried off during the epidemic season, ought to arouse the English public to the necessity of preventive work, but before any adequate measures for prevention and suppression of plague can be devised there must be a more scientific study of the history and therapeutic aspects of the disease. This obvious need is partially met by Prof. W. J. Simpson's "Treatise on Plague" (Macmillan), a work of four hundred and fifty pages, elaborately illustrated with maps, charts, and diagrams, in which are presented the results of the latest studies of the disease made by competent specialists throughout the world. Dr. Simpson speaks appreciatively of the Clayton gas process of disinfection in India. A valuable appendix to the volume contains an English translation of the International Sanitary Convention of Paris, of 1903.

